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BOOK FIVE

**Life in English-
Speaking Countries**

**THE NATIONAL COUNCIL
OF TEACHERS OF ENGLISH**

INTERNATIONAL STUDENT EDITION

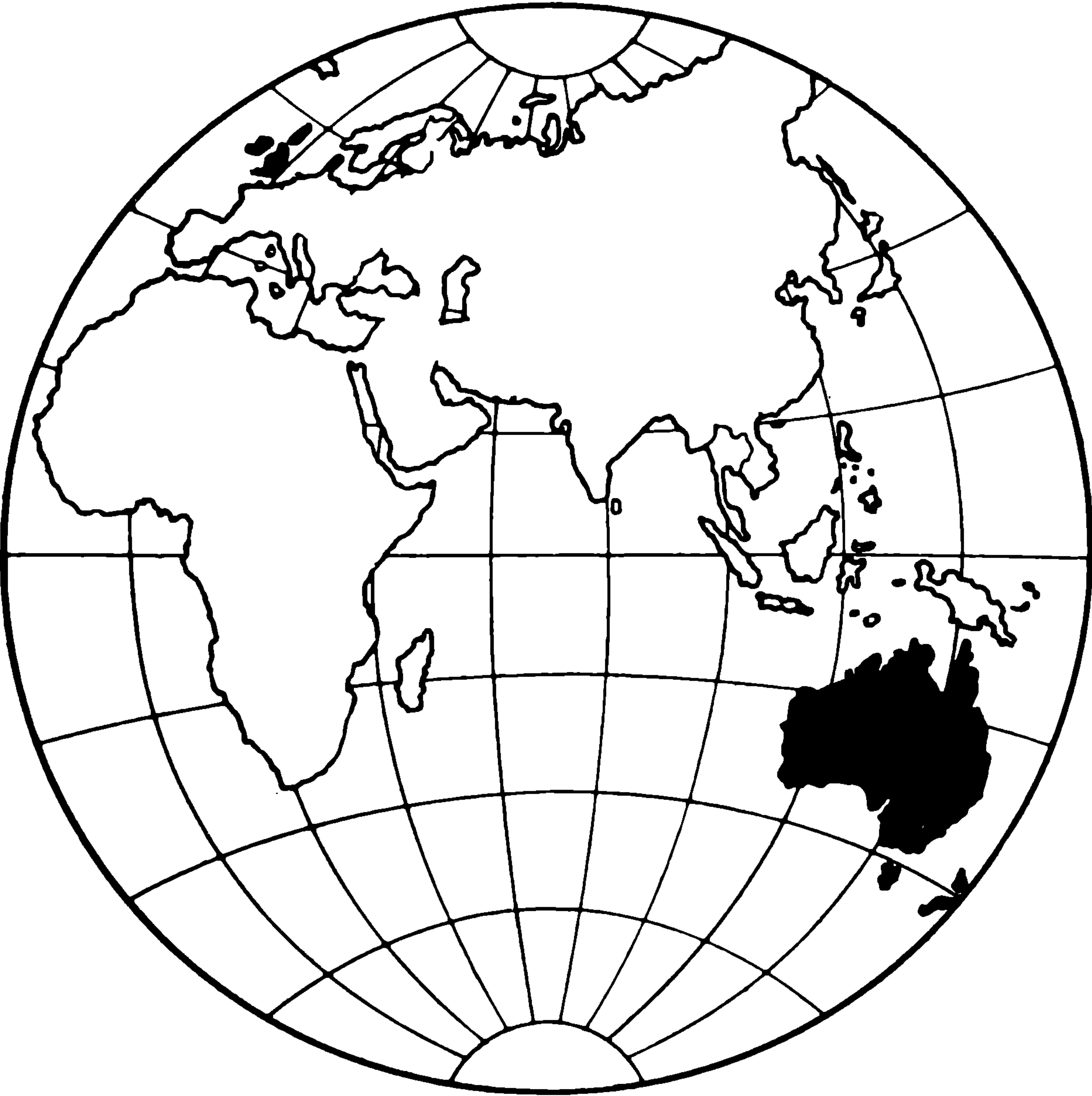
ENGLISH FOR TODAY

Book Five LIFE IN
ENGLISH-SPEAKING COUNTRIES

The English-speaking world.



Western hemisphere



Eastern hemisphere

ENGLISH FOR TODAY

Book Five

LIFE IN

ENGLISH-SPEAKING

COUNTRIES

by The National Council of Teachers of English

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PERMISSIONS

The essays by Mr. Sherman, Professor Nye, and Mrs. Laird were written especially for Book V. All the other essays have been shortened to meet the special needs of students who might be using Book V as their first introduction to composition in English.

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Unit One: ART FORMS, OLD AND NEW



One: THE WORLD OF THE MOVIES

by **JOHN SHERMAN** Mr. Sherman has been arts editor for the *Minneapolis Star and Tribune*¹ since the early 1930s. The University of Minnesota Press has published two of his books: *Music and Maestros: A Story of the Minneapolis Symphony Orchestra* and *Music and Theater in Minnesota History*. A collection of his informal essays, called *Sunday Best*, was published in 1963. In the essay that follows, he attempts a brief sketch of the development of motion pictures in the United States and suggests that the movies may be growing up as a serious art form.

1] In front of us, on a large and bright screen, we see men and women who move and talk, hate and love, cowboys and galloping horses, cities and countries that are far away. All these things, and countless more, we watch as if² they were happening now. We are in a dark movie theater, watching the moving-picture screen.

2] Though motion pictures (or movies, as they are usually called in the United States) are just a little over fifty years old, they have grown to be the most popular and widespread form of entertainment in the world. People who have never seen a play on the stage, who have never attended a concert or an opera, even people who have never read a book, have seen and enjoyed movies.

3] In the early part of the century, some years after the American inventor Thomas A. Edison made the first "animated picture," motion pictures were very crude. The photography was poor, the people in the film moved in a fast and jerky way, and the pictures flickered. At first movies were very short, and the stories they told were very simple.

4] Most people thought that movies were just a passing novelty. But a few of the men who were making movies in that early period saw their great potential. Soon the directors and producers decided to make longer films that told longer and better stories, and they began to demand better acting. Among the pioneers in movie making was David Wark Griffith, an American director, whose most popular film was a three-hour story about the American Civil War, *The Birth of a*

¹ *Minneapolis Star and Tribune*: newspapers published in Minneapolis, Minnesota, U.S.A. ² as if: on the pretense that

Nation. With this film, for the first time, the movies began to “grow up” as fine entertainment and as works of art, like fine novels and fine plays.

5] A suburb of Los Angeles, California, named Hollywood, started to become the center of the film industry. The reason Hollywood was a natural place for making movies was that the sun shines there nearly every day. In the early years most movies were made outdoors with natural light and not indoors with artificial light.



The first movies were made outdoors.

6] For many years, until 1926, movies were silent. They had no sound or music to go with ³ them. The actors only made motions, while the words they “spoke” were printed on the screen. In the theater a musician played the piano or organ while the film was shown. Many movie stars came to fame ⁴ in the silent days—Mary Pickford with her beautiful curls, William S. Hart in cowboy films, such comedians as Harold Lloyd and the great Charlie Chaplin. Many films were serials, which told a long story that had a new chapter every week.

7] In the late 1920s the talkies came. Movies had found a voice, and music and talk became a part of the film—first with phonograph records and then by a sound track that was printed on the film next to the pictures. This change brought many new actors and actresses into the film industry. Some of the stars of the silent films—those whose voices were not well trained—had to retire.

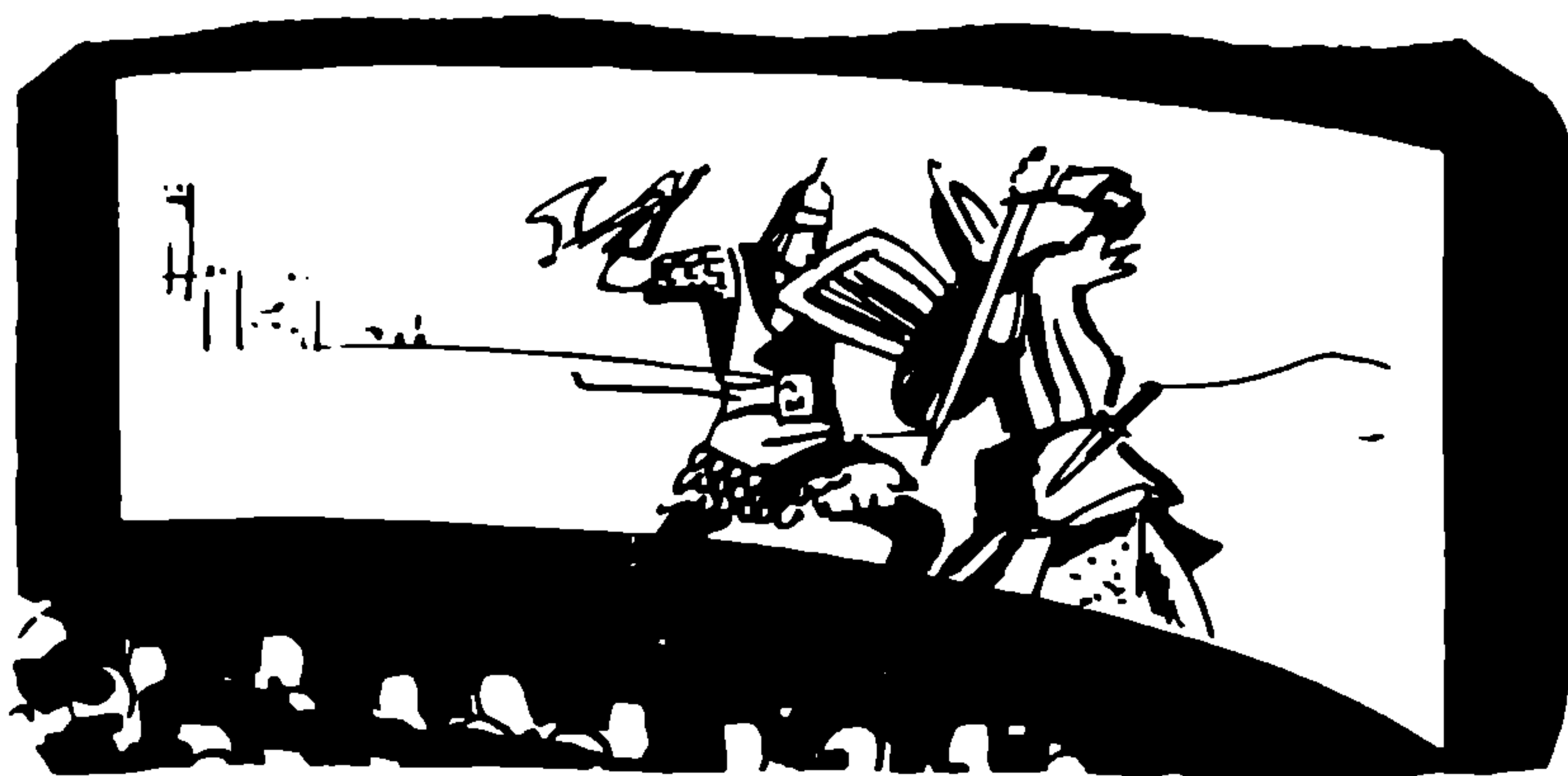
8] Since the development of the talkies, there have been many other advances in film making and showing. One of these is the addition of color. Color was added to sound, so that trees that were black in the old films became green, girls’ lips became red, sky and water became

³ to go with: to accompany

⁴ came to fame: became famous

blue. Another technical advance is the use of the wide screen, which makes the objects of the film much larger, so that sometimes, for instance, the face of the actor is 3 feet long. In certain theaters, too, there are very wide and high screens that curve in front of the audience, so that you seem to be almost “in” the picture yourself. All these ideas have been developed to give the movies greater realism, although they have not always given them greater artistry.

9] Hollywood is no longer the only place where a large number of



A wide screen.

movies are made. In England such producers as J. Arthur Rank and such actors as Laurence Olivier have made British films important and popular. Other countries are making many movies that are both skillful and artistic.

10] Some movies use serious subjects and treat important problems which would have been too advanced ten or twenty years ago. In this sense the movies seem to be growing up, appealing more and more to adult minds, telling us things that only books or plays told us about years ago. But many movies are still made to give sheer pleasure and excitement. As we watch them, we forget about our own troubles. We laugh; we cry; we live other people's lives awhile.

INTENSIVE QUESTIONING: *Yes-No* Questions

Refer to the reading as you choose between *yes* and *no* answers.

1. Are motion pictures just a little over fifty years old?

Yes, they are.
2. Have motion pictures become popular everywhere?
3. Are there people who never go to plays?
4. Were movies at first very crude?
5. Was the photography good at first?
6. Did the people in the film move smoothly and naturally?
7. Did the pictures flicker?
8. Were movies at first very long?
9. Did they tell complicated stories?
10. Did most people regard movies as a passing novelty?
11. Did most of the early moviemakers see their great potential?
12. Did the directors decide to make longer films?
13. Did they demand better acting?
14. Was Griffith a pioneer in movie making?
15. Was Griffith's most popular film five hours long?
16. Was his film about World War I?
17. Was his film called *The Birth of a Country*?
18. Did the movies begin to grow up?
19. Is Hollywood a suburb of New York?
20. Did Hollywood become the center of the film industry?
21. Does the sun shine often in Hollywood?
22. Were the early movies made indoors?
23. Did the early movies use artificial light?
24. Did the early movies have sound?
25. Did the actors speak in the early movies?
26. Was there music in the theater while the film was shown?
27. Were there many movie stars in the days of the silent pictures?

INTENSIVE QUESTIONING: *Wh* Questions

Refer to the reading to find the correct answers.

1. How old are motion pictures?
They are just a little over fifty years old.
2. What is the most popular form of entertainment in the world?

3. Who made the first animated picture?

4. When did Edison make the first animated picture?

5. What were motion pictures like in the early part of the century?

6. What was the photography like?

7. How did the people in the film move?

8. What did the pictures do?

9. How long were the first movie films?

10. What kind of stories did they tell?

11. What did most people think that the movies were?

12. How many people saw the great potential of movies?

13. What did directors and producers begin to demand?

14. Who was David Wark Griffith?

15. What was Griffith's most popular film?

16. How long was *The Birth of a Nation*?

17. What happened to movies after *The Birth of a Nation*?

18. What suburb started to become the center of the film industry?

Understanding Ideas

- 1. Describe the early movies. What was the photography like? How did the people in the film move? (paragraph 3)
- 2. Why was Hollywood chosen as a natural place for making movies? (paragraph 5)
Why was sunshine important for making movies in the early years?
- 3. Why did the talkies bring in new actors and cause the retirement of others? (paragraph 7)

Applying Ideas

- 1. Describe the movies you go to. Where are they made? What are their subjects? What language are they in?
- 2. What are the names of some of your favorite movies? Make a report to the class on one of them.
- 3. Who are some of your favorite movie actors and actresses? Make a report to the class on one of them.

COMPOSITION

A. Central thought: The central thought of the reading could be stated as follows:

From their crude beginnings, motion pictures have developed into an art which is the most widespread form of entertainment in the world.

List the ways in which movies have developed from their crude beginnings. Use complete sentences, and follow the time order of the reading.

B. Paragraph construction

1. Turn the following questions into statements:

Are movies just a little over fifty years old? Have they grown to be the most popular form of entertainment in the world? Have people who have never seen a stage play seen movies? Have people who have never attended an opera seen movies?

Combine the first two statements with a *though* clause. Combine the last two statements by using *and*.

2. Answer the *or* questions with complete statements.

Were the early movies skillful or crude? Was the photography poor or good? Did the people in the film move naturally and smoothly, or did they move in a fast and jerky way? Were the pictures steady, or did they flicker?

Combine your answers to the last three questions into a single statement. Connect the first with the second by a comma, the second with the third by using *and*.

3. Arrange the following sentences in a logical sequence. Do not refer to the reading.

- a. The reason Hollywood was a natural place for making movies was that the sun shines there nearly every day.
- b. A suburb of Los Angeles, California, named Hollywood, started to become the center of the film industry.
- c. In the early years, most movies were made outdoors with natural light.

4. Read paragraphs 6 and 7 through three more times. Then see whether you can write a paragraph about the silent movies and the talkies. You are free to use as much of the original wording as you can remember. You might use a topic sentence like the following: *The talkies were very different from the silent movies.*

GRAMMAR. Noun Compounds

Model: S1: What do you call a theater that shows movies?

S2: You call it a **movie** theater.

1.1 Follow the model as you make compounds with object and subject. The compounds are spelled as two words unless otherwise marked.

1. S1: What do you call an office that sells tickets?

S2: _____

2. S1: What do you call a store that sells groceries?

S2: _____

3. S1: What do you call a store that sells books? (*one word*)

S2: _____

4. S1: What do you call a building that contains offices?

S2: _____

5. S1: What do you call a building that contains apartments?

S2: _____

6. S1: What do you call a store that contains departments?

S2: _____

7. S1: What do you call a specialist that treats eyes?

S2: _____

8. S1: What do you call a specialist that treats ears?

S2: _____

9. S1: What do you call a train that carries passengers?

S2: _____

10. S1: What do you call a train that carries freight?

S2: _____

11. S1: What do you call a plant that produces tomatoes?

S2: _____

12. S1: What do you call a tree that produces peaches?

S2: _____

13. S1: What do you call a farm that produces wheat?

S2: _____

14. S1: What do you call a department that teaches English?

S2: _____

15. S1: What do you call a man that delivers milk? (*one word*)

S2: _____

Model: S1: What do you call a booth where tickets are sold?

S2: You call it a **ticket** booth.

1.2 Follow the model as you practice conversations that include compounds. The compounds are spelled as two words unless otherwise marked.

1. S1: _____ a market where fish are sold?
S2: _____
2. S1: _____ a market where meat is sold?
S2: _____
3. S1: _____ a stand where fruit is sold?
S2: _____
4. S1: _____ a store where shoes are sold?
S2: _____
5. S1: _____ a store where hardware is sold?
S2: _____
6. S1: _____ a store where drugs are sold? (*one word*)
S2: _____
7. S1: _____ a store where clothing is sold?
S2: _____
8. S1: _____ a room where tea is served? (*one word*)
S2: _____
9. S1: _____ a stand where hamburgers are sold?
S2: _____
10. S1: _____ a bar where milk is sold?
S2: _____

Model: A seat in the balcony is a **balcony** seat.

1.3 Follow the model as you complete the sentences.

1. A seat in the orchestra _____
2. A curtain on a window _____
3. A set on a stage _____
4. A play written for the stage _____
5. A play written for television _____
6. A class at night _____
7. A clerk in an office _____
8. A mechanic in a garage _____
9. An assistant in a laboratory _____

Two: SHAKESPEARE: ENGLAND'S GREATEST PLAYWRIGHT

by **RUSSEL B. NYE** Professor Nye, a member of the English Department at Michigan State University, is highly regarded as a biographer and historian. One of his books, the biography of the American historian George Bancroft, was awarded the Pulitzer Prize ¹ in 1945. In the following essay, written especially for Book V, Professor Nye gives a brief sketch of the life of the greatest of English playwrights and emphasizes the universality of his appeal.



Shakespeare.

1] England has long been famous for her playwrights, the greatest of whom is William Shakespeare. It would be hard to find an educated man in the English-speaking world who has not heard his name. This actor and playwright, born more than 400 years ago, has become not only for Englishmen but for the whole world the chief symbol of British culture, the greatest name in England's literature. Today at Stratford-on-Avon, where he was born, visitors from

all over the world come to see his plays performed by famous actors and to pay their respects to ² his genius.



Stratford-on-Avon.

2] Shakespeare was born at Stratford in 1564, into a prosperous middle-class family. Not much is known of his boyhood, except that he received a good education and married Anne Hathaway when he was eighteen. Records show that Shakespeare had three children—Susanna, who was baptized in 1583; and twins, named Hamnet and Judith, who were baptized in 1585.

¹ the Pulitzer Prize: one of several prizes established by Joseph Pulitzer and given each year to outstanding journalistic and literary writers in the United States

² pay their respects to: show their respects to; honor

3) Sometime before 1591 Shakespeare left his family and went to London, where he joined one of the theater companies, acted in some of the plays, and began to write his own. He became wealthy and famous in the London theater, recognized by his fellow dramatists as a master of his art. Between 1591 and 1611 Shakespeare wrote thirty-seven plays in whole or in part. Some were comedies, some were tragedies, and some were historical plays, drawn from ³ events in English, Scottish, Roman, and Greek history.

4) Whatever the play, Shakespeare had the gift of entering into the minds and hearts of his fellowmen ⁴ and of putting on the stage, through his characters, the deepest and truest emotions common to all of them. He saw both sides of life, its joys and its sorrows. Hamlet expressed the miracle of man's creation thus:



Hamlet.

What a piece of work is a man! How noble in reason! how infinite in faculty! in form, in moving, how express and admirable! in action how like an angel! in apprehension how like a god! the beauty of the world! the paragon of animals!



Macbeth.

Macbeth re-created the despair of the disillusioned in the following famous passage:

Life's but a walking shadow, a poor player
That struts and frets his hour upon the stage,
And then is heard no more; it is a tale
Told by an idiot, full of sound and fury,
Signifying nothing.

5) People everywhere have been able to recognize themselves and their problems in characters such as Romeo and Juliet, the "star-cross'd lovers," who were kept apart by their own families. Audiences everywhere have been able to sympathize with Hamlet's indecision ("To be, or not to be . . ."), with Macbeth's ambition ("Vaulting ambition, which o'erleaps itself . . ."), and with Othello's jealousy ("the green-eyed monster which doth mock the meat it feeds on"). Though they may speak in English, Shakespeare's characters act out ⁵ universal human problems. Shakespeare's art is English, but it is also international.

³ drawn from: taken from; based on

⁴ the gift of entering into the minds and hearts of his fellowmen: the ability to arouse the understanding and sympathy of others

⁵ act out: show; portray

INTENSIVE QUESTIONING: *Yes-No* Questions

Refer to the reading as you choose between *yes* and *no* answers.

1. Have most educated men in the English-speaking world heard of Shakespeare?

Yes, they have.
2. Was Shakespeare an actor as well as a playwright?
3. Did Shakespeare ever act in plays?
4. Is Shakespeare the chief symbol of British culture?
5. Was Shakespeare born a thousand years ago?
6. Was Shakespeare born in London?
7. Are his plays performed today at Stratford?
8. Was Shakespeare born in 1600?
9. Was Shakespeare born into a poor family?
10. Do we know much about his boyhood?
11. Did he receive a good education?
12. Did he marry when he was sixteen?
13. Did the Shakespeares have four children?
14. Did the Shakespeares have twins?
15. Was one of the twins named Judith?
16. Did Shakespeare leave Stratford for London?
17. Did he take his family with him?
18. Did he join one of the theater companies?
19. Did he act as well as write?
20. Did he become famous in the London theater?
21. Did his fellow dramatists fail to recognize him?
22. Did he write more than fifty plays?
23. Did he write more than thirty plays?
24. Did he write different kinds of plays?
25. Were his historical plays based on English history only?
26. Could Shakespeare enter into the minds of his fellowmen?
27. Did he see both sides of life?
28. Is Hamlet one of Shakespeare's characters?
29. Have people everywhere been able to recognize themselves in his characters?

INTENSIVE QUESTIONING: *Wh* Questions

Refer to the reading to find the correct answers.

1. How long ago was Shakespeare born?
He was born more than 400 years ago.
2. What is Shakespeare the chief symbol of?

3. What is the greatest name in England's literature?

4. Where was Shakespeare born?

5. What do visitors come to see at Stratford?

6. Who are his plays performed by?

7. What do visitors pay their respects to?

8. What year was Shakespeare born in?

9. What kind of family was he born into?

10. How much is known about his boyhood?

11. What kind of education did he receive?

12. Who did Shakespeare marry?

13. How old was Shakespeare when he got married?

14. How many children did Shakespeare have?

15. When did Shakespeare go to London?

16. What did he join in London?

17. Who recognized Shakespeare as a master of his art?

18. How many plays did Shakespeare write?

Understanding Ideas

1. What are some of the subjects that Shakespeare wrote about? (paragraph 3)
2. What are the names of some of Shakespeare's characters? Is their appeal English or international? Why? (paragraphs 4 and 5)
3. What aspect of Hamlet's character is mentioned in the reading? of Macbeth's? of Othello's? (paragraph 5)

Applying Ideas

1. What kind of theatrical tradition do you have in your country? Describe how it differs from or is similar to the English tradition.
2. Have you read any of Shakespeare's plays? If so, give a brief summary of the plot of one of the plays.
3. Choose a famous actor (perhaps an actor in your country) and present a brief report on his life to the class.

COMPOSITION

A. Summary: Summarize the information given about Shakespeare in the reading. Write no more than three sentences about each of the following subjects:

1. his own family and his family background
2. his experience as an actor and dramatist in London
3. the ideas expressed by his characters

B. Paragraph construction

1. Fill in the blanks by choosing the appropriate connecting words: *though, whom, but, what*.

Shakespeare's art is English, _____ it is also international. _____ his characters act out upon the stage are universal human problems. Hamlet, Macbeth, and many other characters from his plays are timeless creations, in _____ people everywhere recognize themselves. _____ they may speak English, Shakespeare's characters can be understood in any language.

2. Notice that the following sentences are short and unconnected.

The buildings that house London's theaters may be new. Many of London's theaters have names that go back into history more

than 300 years. London's Fortune Theatre was founded in 1600. The famous Theater Royal was founded in 1663.

Make the paragraph read smoothly by combining the sentences as directed. (1) Combine the first two sentences with *although*. Which sentence should become the *although* clause? Use a pronoun to avoid repetition of *London's theaters*. (2) Begin sentence 3 with *For example*,. Then combine sentences 3 and 4 with *and*.

3. Fill in the blanks with *although* or *until*.

_____ Shakespeare acted in many plays, his talent as an actor did not establish his reputation. He did not become famous _____ he began to write plays. Then, _____ some of his fellow dramatists regarded him as an upstart, they were all obliged to recognize his genius.

4. Arrange the following sentences in a logical sequence.

After spending nearly twenty years in London, Shakespeare returned to Stratford. He became both wealthy and famous in the London theater, recognized by his fellow dramatists as a master of his art. Sometime before 1591 Shakespeare left his family and went to London, where he acted in some of the plays and began to write his own.

5. Read the second paragraph through three more times. Then see whether you can write a similar paragraph. Remember that the paragraph should contain the following facts about Shakespeare's life: when and where he was born, what kind of education he received, the age at which he married, and the names of his wife and children.

GRAMMAR. Compounds with Verb + Particle and Particle + Verb

Model: The actress came back after years of retirement.
She had a successful **comeback**.

2.1 Follow the model as you form compounds with verb + particle.
The compounds are spelled as one word unless otherwise marked.

1. More people turned out for the performance than were expected.
There was an unexpected _____ for the performance.
2. The young actor tried out for the important part.
It was his first important _____
3. The newspaper built up the actress's reputation.
It gave her an extensive _____
4. The critic wrote up the play favorably.
It was a favorable _____ (*hyphenated*)
5. They sold out all the tickets for Saturday's performance.
They had a complete _____
6. The television station signs off at 1:00 A.M.
It has a 1:00 A.M. _____ (*hyphenated*)
7. They marked down all the prices for the sale.
There was a big _____ on all the prices.

Model: The actor's cash went out faster than it came in.
His **outgo** was greater than his **income**.

2.2 Follow the model as you form compounds with particle + verb.

1. The story came out happily.
It had a happy _____
2. The computer put out information rapidly.
The _____ of the computer was rapid.
3. The rain poured down.
There was a heavy _____
4. At this point the business curve swings up.
At this point there is an _____ in the business curve.
5. The trend of business turned up recently.
Recently there has been a sharp _____ in business.
6. It was expensive to keep up the house.
The _____ of the house was expensive.

Genitive Compounds

Model: An office occupied by a doctor is a **doctor's** office.

2.3 Follow the model to form compounds with possessive noun + noun.

- 1. An office occupied by a dentist _____
- 2. An office occupied by a lawyer _____
- 3. An office occupied by an editor _____
- 4. An office occupied by a director _____
- 5. An office occupied by a producer _____
- 6. A seat occupied by a driver _____
- 7. A license issued to a driver _____
- 8. A book written for children _____
- 9. Milk given by a goat _____
- 10. Milk given by a cow _____

Model: The top of the table is a **tabletop**.

2.4 Follow the model to form compounds with noun + noun. The compounds are spelled as two words unless otherwise marked.

- 1. The jacket of a suit _____
- 2. The button of a shirt _____
- 3. The collar of a shirt _____
- 4. The seat of a car _____
- 5. The wheel of a car _____
- 6. The wheel of a train _____
- 7. The front of a store _____ (*one word*)
- 8. The bottom of the ocean _____
- 9. The bottom of a lake _____
- 10. The top of a box _____
- 11. The side of a mountain _____ (*one word*)
- 12. The side of a hill _____ (*one word*)
- 13. The top of a mountain _____ (*one word*)
- 14. The top of a hill _____ (*one word*)
- 15. The knob of a door _____ (*one word*)

Three: THE BEGINNINGS OF JAZZ

by **DENNIS ASKEY** Mr. Askey, born in Texas, has had many years of experience as a publisher and as a magazine editor. His enthusiastic interest in the most distinctively American music marks him as a "jazz buff."¹ In the essay that follows, Mr. Askey explains the early origins of jazz and defines its special musical qualities.



A group of folksingers.



A brass band.

1] Jazz had its beginnings in song. Its roots lie deep in the tradition of ² Negro folk singing that once flourished throughout the rural Southland of the United States before the Civil War. The Negro, in those days, owned only a few crude musical instruments which he made for himself from boxes, barrels, and brooms. His voice was his principal means of musical expression. Songs of work and play, trouble and hope, rose on rich and rhythmic voices everywhere in the South—from peddlers crying their wares ³ to the countryside, from work gangs on the railroads, from families gathered at the day's end to sing away ⁴ their weariness in their unpainted cottages overlooking the cotton fields, from the wayside churches singing with the sounds of Sabbath praise.⁵

2] These were the voices which the early Negro musicians imitated and transferred to their horns when they taught themselves to play the discarded band instruments that came into their hands at the close of the Civil War in the eighteen-sixties ⁶ (1860s). As played by their proud Negro owners, the instruments became extensions of the human voice—"singing horns" which opened the way to jazz. For this reason there has always been a strong, singing quality to jazz.

¹ "jazz buff": a jazz enthusiast; a person who likes jazz very much

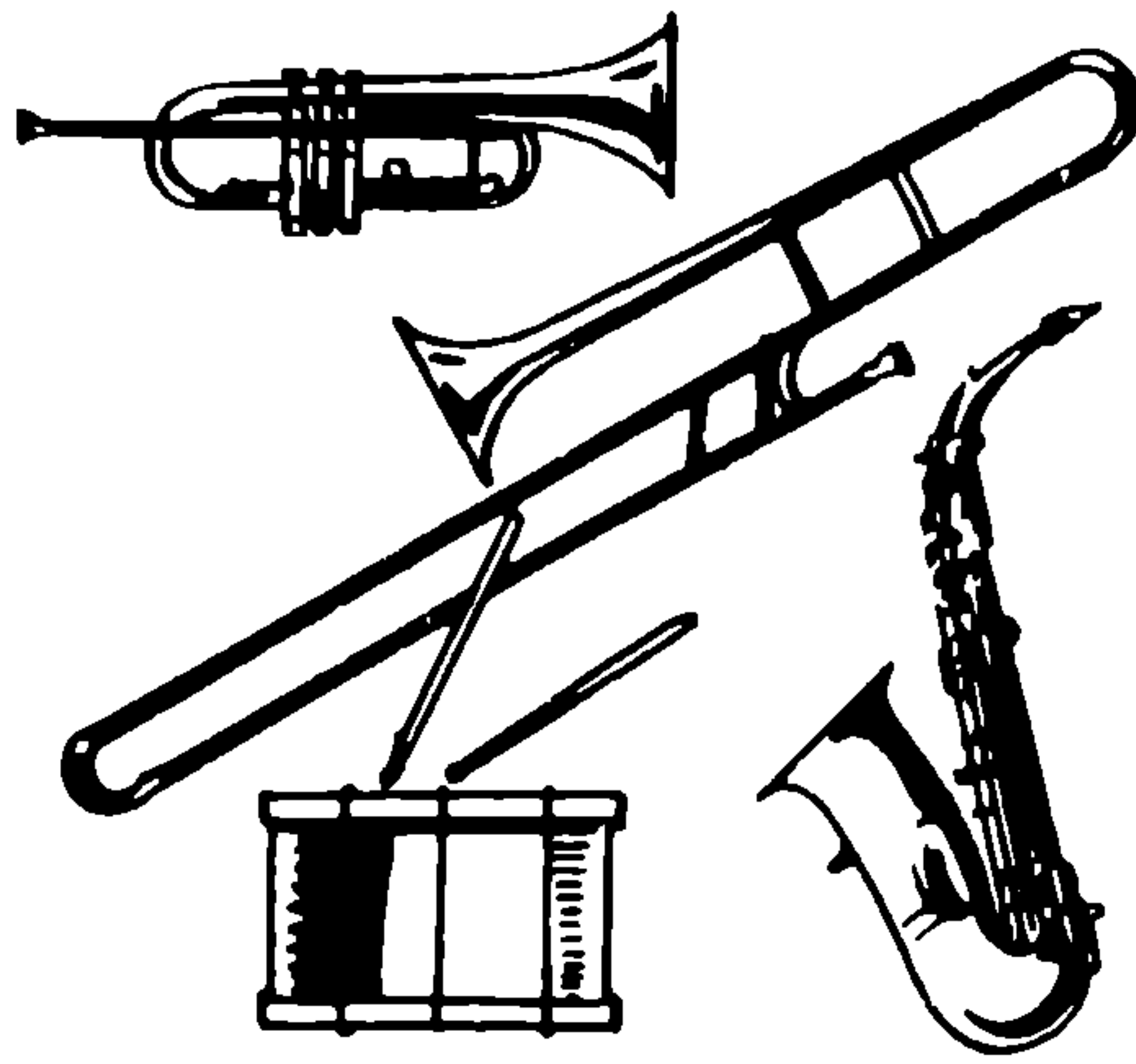
² Its roots lie deep in the tradition of: It (jazz) began early in

³ crying their wares: shouting the name(s) of what they offered for sale

⁴ sing away: sing songs to forget

⁵ Sabbath praise: praise of the Christian God on Sunday

⁶ the eighteen-sixties: the year 1860 to 1869



Band instruments.

3] Because they knew nothing of the established rules ⁷ of music and were unfamiliar with ⁸ the instruments they were learning to play, they discovered rich new nuances of tone colors and extended the range of their horns far beyond their traditional limits. Louis Armstrong ⁹ might never have been able to play those famous high notes on his trumpet if the old-time Negro trumpet players had known that this was a range in which the instruments were not originally supposed to play.

4] For their rhythms the Negro musicians looked to ¹⁰ their African heritage, building much of their music over the rhythms of African drums. Drumming styles long familiar to the African, but new to Western ears, gave this new music a swinging, dancing character of its own.

⁷ established rules: traditional or conventional rules

⁸ were unfamiliar with: did not know very well

⁹ Louis Armstrong: an American Negro musician well-known for playing the trumpet

¹⁰ looked to: turned to



Drums.

5] But if Africa spoke loudly in the new jazz, it did not speak alone. The early musicians used all the different kinds of music they heard about them, stirring into their music the elements from church hymns, polkas, folk songs, marches, or anything which caught their fancy.¹¹ Even such sounds as the sound of a railroad train entered into their music. Long hours were spent, for example, trying to capture in music the sad cry of a train whistle and the pounding rhythm of the wheels.



Train.

6] The result was a musical hybrid—a mixture that was vigorous, native, and unmistakably new. Some of this music was diverted into ¹² the body of religious music that later developed into the Negro spiritual.¹³ Much of it, however, poured into marches, ragtime, and especially the blues. Ragtime was essentially piano music; marches required a band. The blues were basically vocal music, requiring no more accompaniment than a guitar or a harmonica, and they spoke a language of song which the Negro already understood.

7] A kind of song-speech coming directly from the singer's emotions, the blues spoke of troubles and joys, and expressed the general feelings about life and love which grew directly out of the Negro community. Sometimes gay, but more often sentimental, and always carrying with them a hint of sadness and pain, the blues became the musical folk poetry of the American Negro people.

8] Blues singers wandered through the South with battered guitars and worn harmonicas, singing songs they invented, adapted, or bor-

¹¹ caught their fancy: came to their mind; attracted favorable attention

¹² diverted into: taken into; absorbed by

¹³ Negro spiritual: kind of religious music sung by the American Negro

rowed. They earned a meager living ¹⁴ singing on street corners, in barrooms, at picnics, or anywhere people gathered. What they lacked in money they more than made up by the popularity they gathered from admirers along the way of their wanderings. In their hands the blues developed a set of standards and a flexible form—usually twelve bars of music, the words set into three-line stanzas, that began with a statement, repeated it, then carried it forward and ended with a final statement of hope, or sadness, or cynicism, or sometimes humor.

9] Meanwhile much of the crudeness had gradually disappeared from the playing of the brass bands, and these too became a popular fixture in the community life of the Southern Negro. The bandsmen were called upon ¹⁵ to play at all sorts of social events. They played for dances, weddings, picnics, parades, or sometimes simply for the sheer love of hearing the new voices that their horns gave them. They played anything and everything. In the funeral marches, they played sad songs on the way to the cemetery, but once the funeral was over, the band would march back playing gay and spirited tunes or a rollicking blues.



A brass band.

10] This, then, was the music in which pioneer musicians gave jazz its first voice and defined its musical form. Many of the old-time musicians never heard the word *jazz*, which was not used to describe their music until about 1920. What they played was a kind of music that to them was a way of life, a profound expression of the Negro soul.

¹⁴ **earned a meager living:** made only a little money to live on

¹⁵ **called upon:** invited

INTENSIVE QUESTIONING: *Yes-No* Questions

Refer to the reading as you choose between *yes* and *no* answers.

- | | |
|--|--------------|
| 1. Did jazz have its beginnings in song? | Yes, it did. |
| 2. Do its roots lie in Negro folk singing? | _____ |
| 3. Did the folk singing flourish in the urban South-land? | _____ |
| 4. Did the Negro own many musical instruments? | _____ |
| 5. Did he make the instruments for himself? | _____ |
| 6. Were some of them made from boxes? | _____ |
| 7. Were the instruments his principal means of musical expression? | _____ |
| 8. Were the songs sung on railroad gangs as well as in churches? | _____ |
| 9. Did the early Negro musicians imitate these songs? | _____ |
| 10. Were they taught to play their horns? | _____ |
| 11. Were the instruments extensions of the human voice? | _____ |
| 12. Did the "singing horns" open the way to jazz? | _____ |
| 13. Has jazz always had a strong, singing quality? | _____ |
| 14. Did the early jazz musicians know about the rules of music? | _____ |
| 15. Were they familiar with the instruments they were learning to play? | _____ |
| 16. Did they extend the range of their horns? | _____ |
| 17. Were trumpets supposed to play in the range of Louis Armstrong's high notes? | _____ |
| 18. Were the Negro musicians influenced by the rhythms of African drums? | _____ |
| 19. Were African drumming styles familiar to Western ears? | _____ |
| 20. Did early jazz musicians depend on African rhythms only? | _____ |
| 21. Did church hymns and folk songs influence jazz? | _____ |
| 22. Did the sound of a train enter into jazz music? | _____ |
| 23. Was jazz a new musical mixture? | _____ |
| 24. Is the Negro religious music related to jazz? | _____ |

INTENSIVE QUESTIONING: *Wh* Questions

Refer to the reading to find the correct answers.

- 1. What did jazz have its beginnings in?
Jazz had its beginnings in song.
- 2. Where do the roots of jazz lie?

- 3. When did Negro folk singing flourish?

- 4. Where did Negro folk singing flourish?

- 5. How many musical instruments did the Negro own?

- 6. What did he make the crude instruments from?

- 7. What were the instruments like?

- 8. What was his principal means of musical expression?

- 9. What were his songs about?

- 10. Who sang the folk songs?

- 11. Where were the folk songs sung?

- 12. Who imitated these voices?

- 13. What did the early musicians transfer these voices to?

- 14. When did they get the band instruments?

- 15. What did the instruments become extensions of?

- 16. What opened the way to jazz?

- 17. Why has there always been a strong, singing quality to jazz?

Understanding Ideas

- 1. What kinds of songs were the basis of jazz? Who sang them? Where?
- 2. Why has there always been a strong, singing quality to jazz?
- 3. Why were the early jazz musicians able to extend the range of their horns? What did they know about traditional rules of music?
- 4. What other influences besides the African drumming style can be found in jazz?
- 5. What did blues singers sing about? What form did the blues develop?
- 6. What events did the brass bands play at?

Applying Ideas

- 1. Describe the folk songs of your country. How are they sung? What subjects do they deal with?
- 2. What kind of instruments are used to play the music that is most popular in your country? Describe the instruments, how they sound, and how they are played.
- 3. Are you interested in jazz? If so, tell the class about a jazz style (e.g., Dixieland) you like or a jazz musician you admire.

COMPOSITION

A. Summary: State the central thought of the reading. You will find it in paragraphs 1 and 2.

Central thought: _____

Notice that the subject of the first paragraph could be summarized in a single sentence. Give similar one-sentence summaries of the other paragraphs.

- Paragraph 1. Jazz had its beginnings in the folk songs of the Southern Negro.
- Paragraph 2. Band instruments extended the human voice, thus opening the way to jazz.
- Paragraph 3. _____
- Paragraph 4. _____

- Paragraph 5. _____
- Paragraph 6. _____
- Paragraph 7. _____
- Paragraph 8. _____
- Paragraph 9. _____
- Paragraph 10. _____

B. Paragraph construction

1. Turn the following questions into statements:

Did jazz have its beginnings in song? Do its roots lie in the tradition of Negro folk singing? Did the Negro own only a few musical instruments? Did his voice become his principal means of musical expression?

Combine the last two statements with a *because* clause.

2. Turn the following questions into statements:

Did the early Negro musicians teach themselves to play band instruments? Did these instruments come into their hands at the close of the Civil War? Did these band instruments become extensions of the human voice? Did they open the way to jazz?

Turn statement 2 into a *which* clause and combine it with statement 1. Combine statements 3 and 4 by using *and*.

3. Arrange the following sentences in a logical sequence. Do not refer to the reading.

- a. Even such sounds as the sound of a railroad train entered into their music.
- b. If Africa spoke loudly in the new jazz, it did not speak alone.
- c. The early musicians used all the different kinds of music they heard—church hymns, marches, or anything else that caught their attention.

4. Read the first paragraph through three more times. Then see whether you can write a similar paragraph. Of course you are free to use as much of the original wording as you can remember. Before you begin to write, remind yourself of the subject of the paragraph: *Jazz had its beginnings in Negro folk songs of the Southland of the United States.*

GRAMMAR. Noun Compounds

Model: S1: What do you call someone who plays the piano?
S2: You call him a **piano** player.

play → player

3.1 Complete the dialogues. Then practice them with your classmates. The compounds are spelled as two words unless otherwise marked. (Note: The suffix added to the verb to form the noun is sometimes *-er*, as in *player*, sometimes *-or*, as in *conductor*.)

1. S1: What do you call someone who plays the trumpet?

S2: _____
2. S1: What do you call someone who sings opera?

S2: _____
3. S1: What do you call someone who sings jazz?

S2: _____
4. S1: What do you call someone who teaches music?

S2: _____
5. S1: What do you call someone who teaches English?

S2: _____
6. S1: What do you call someone who leads bands? (*one word*)

S2: _____
7. S1: What do you call someone who conducts orchestras?

S2: _____
8. S1: What do you call someone who sells tickets?

S2: _____
9. S1: _____ manages theaters?

S2: _____
10. S1: _____ produces plays?

S2: _____
11. S1: _____ directs movies?

S2: _____
12. S1: _____ writes scripts? (*one word*)

S2: _____
13. S1: _____ drives buses?

S2: _____
14. S1: _____ drives taxis?

S2: _____
15. S1: _____ writes songs? (*one word*)

S2: _____

Model: He writes songs. He's a good **song**writer.
He got an award for writing songs.
He got an award for **song** writing.

write → writer write → writing

3.2 Follow the model as you form sentences with compounds. The compounds are spelled as two words unless otherwise marked.

- 1. He designs books . He's a good book designer.

- 2. He edits books. _____

- 3. He illustrates books. _____

- 4. She makes dresses. _____ (one word)

_____ (one word)
- 5. She designs dresses. _____

- 6. He sells tickets. _____

- 7. He tells stories. _____ (one word)

_____ (one word)
- 8. He designs sets. _____

- 9. He paints signs. _____

- 10. He writes scripts. _____ (one word)

Model: A room you dress in is a **dress**ing room.

dress → dressing

3.3 Follow the model to form compounds with verb-*ing* + object of preposition.

1. A room you wait in _____
2. A room you read in _____
3. A room you dine in _____
4. A needle you knit with _____
5. A needle you darn with _____
6. A knife you carve with _____
7. A board you carve on _____
8. A pan you fry in _____
9. A cup you drink with _____
10. A chair you rock on _____
11. A desk you write on _____

Model: Someone who acts in the movies is a **movie** actor.

3.4 Follow the model to form compounds with object of preposition + verb with *-er* or *-or* suffix. The compounds are spelled as two words unless otherwise marked.

1. Someone who acts on television _____
2. Someone who works in factories _____
3. Someone who works in offices _____
4. Someone who works on farms _____
5. Someone who dances on his toes _____
6. Someone who sings in the streets _____
7. Someone who sings in a nightclub _____
8. Someone who sings in operas _____
9. Someone who writes for newspapers _____
10. Someone who dwells in the city _____
11. Someone who sits with babies _____ (*hyphenated*)
12. Someone who walks in his sleep _____ (*one word*)
13. Someone who goes to plays regularly _____ (*one word*)
14. Someone who goes to church regularly _____ (*one word*)

Four: THE ART OF THE SKYSCRAPER

by **PETER BUITENHUIS** Professor Buitenhuis, a native of England, graduated from Oxford and then came to the United States to teach at Yale University. He is at present teaching in Canada at the University of Toronto, where he continues to comment on the North American scene.¹



The Chicago skyline.

1] American architecture is at its best² when it is concerned with buildings which have a practical purpose. Factories, office buildings, public buildings, rail terminals and airports, and other such structures show American architecture at its most imaginative and graceful, as well as at its most useful. The single most important American architectural design is the skyscraper, a style developed in the late nineteenth century and since known as the trademark of American building the world over.³

2] Before the development of the steel skeleton frame for buildings, the weight and low strength of stone and brick limited the height of the city office building to about twelve floors. As American cities grew larger in the closing years of the nineteenth century and the land on which the structures might be placed became more valuable, the demand for taller buildings increased. The use of steel frame for construction was a direct response to this demand.

3] The first office building to use the steel-frame technique was constructed in 1885. It soon became clear that a steel-framed building

¹ the North American scene: life and events in North America

² is at its best: is best expressed; is most excellent

³ the world over: all over the world

could rise at least four times as high as one of brick or stone. In a little more than ten years, the use of the steel frame had revolutionized the design of city office buildings, and the skyscraper was born.

4] The center of development of this new architectural form was Chicago, a city particularly well-suited to the idea of the skyscraper. It was also rapidly developing as a business and railroad center. In the 1880s and 1890s large numbers of skyscrapers were built in Chicago, and the design spread to other cities as well.⁴ Many of the architects who planned them merely adapted older building forms to this new kind of construction, simply stretching the buildings upward⁵ to fit the need for more office space on a small base of land. Some decorated their buildings with copies of Greek, Roman, and medieval ornaments. Some Chicago architects, however, were dissatisfied with this approach to a new building form. They felt that as a new kind of building, the skyscraper ought to be new and different in appearance as well as in its methods of construction. One of these architects was Louis Sullivan.

5] Frank Lloyd Wright, himself later a famous architect, who worked in Sullivan's offices as a young man, recalled how one day Sullivan entered, placed a piece of paper on his desk, and left without a word.⁶ On the paper was a drawing of a new kind of skyscraper design, one in which Sullivan had replaced the broken, solid walls of previous buildings with sheer, straight, transparent screens of stone and glass over the steel frame. The building seemed to shoot upward,⁷ with nothing in its design to hold the eye down. What Sullivan had done was to draw a building which illustrated his own famous statement about architectural design: "Form follows function."⁸ What Sullivan meant—that the form of a building grows out of⁹ its use—revolutionized the appearance of the skyscraper. In his Carson Pirie Scott department store (1899) and the McClurg Building in Chicago, Sullivan's concept is seen at its best.

⁴ as well: also

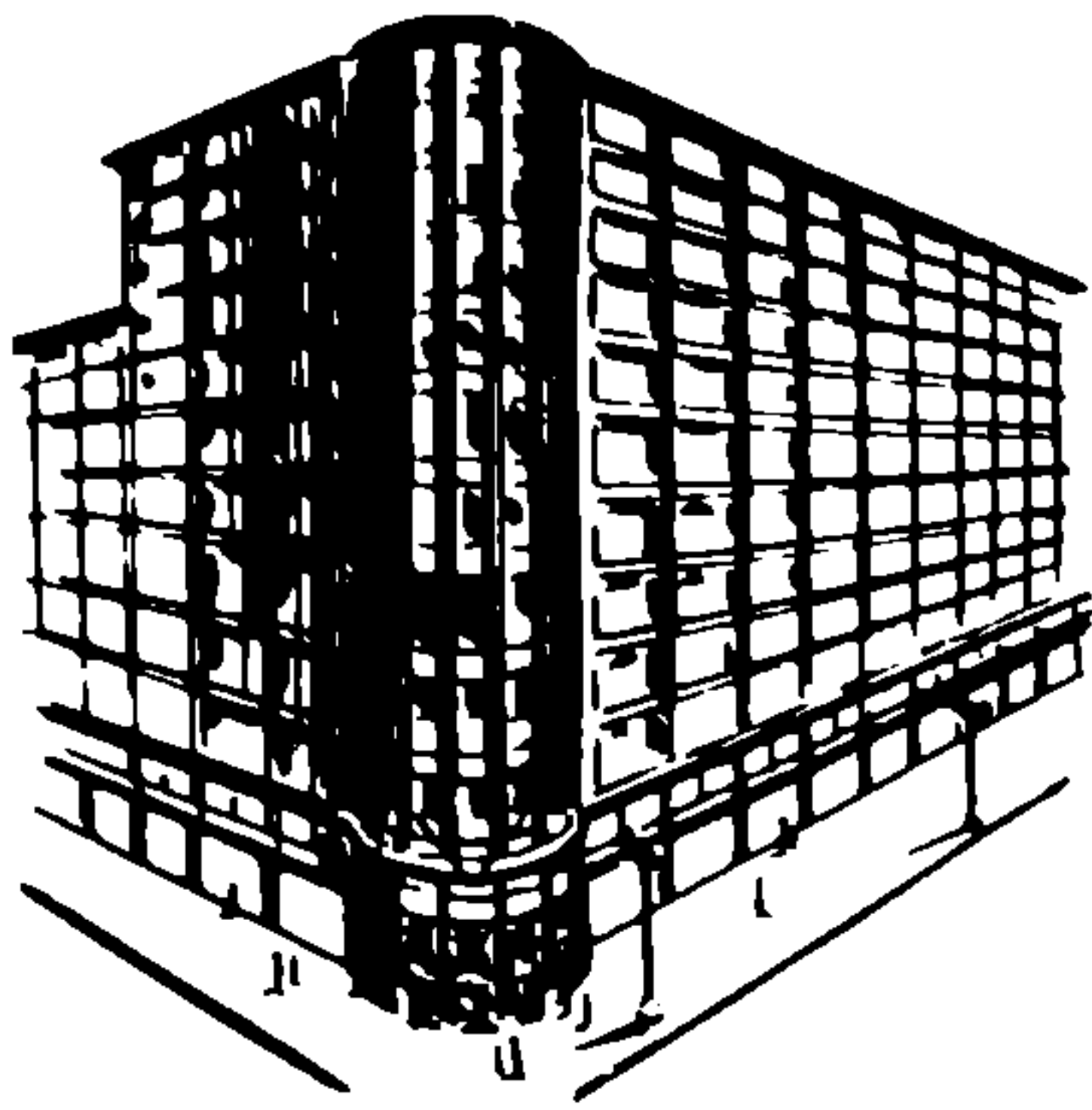
⁵ stretching the buildings upward: making the buildings taller

⁶ without a word: without saying anything

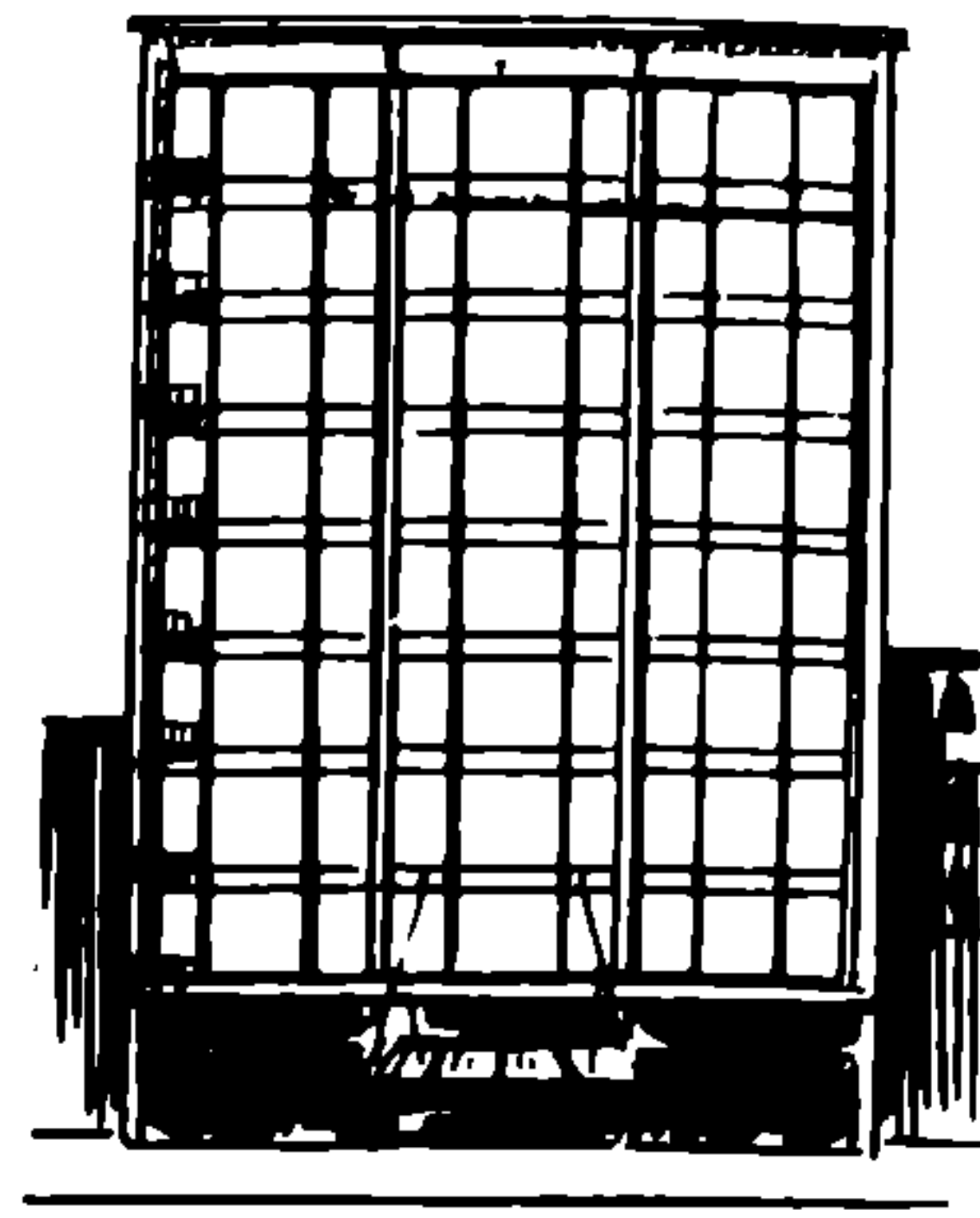
⁷ to shoot upward: to rise without effort

⁸ Form follows function: Function, or convenience, decides the form.

⁹ grows out of: comes from; develops from



Carson Pirie Scott department store.



The McClurg building

6] The Chicago skyline soon revealed the results of the work of Sullivan and like-minded architects,¹⁰ and the clean, soaring lines of these new buildings appeared in every large American city. America took pride in¹¹ its tall skyscrapers, feeling that they expressed the force and daring that were so much a part of the mood of its business life. The fifty-seven-story Woolworth Tower in New York, completed in 1912, became one of the most famous buildings in the world. However, it was not long before five other buildings topped the Woolworth Tower. A new champion, the Empire State Building, rose 102 stories and 1,250 feet into the sky over New York.

7] Frank Lloyd Wright, the architect who after Sullivan had most to do with¹² determining the course of American public architecture, believed that designing buildings for business “might become genuine architecture and be beautiful as standardization in steel, metals and glass.” To prove his point, Wright built his superb skyscraper for the Johnson Wax Company at Racine, Wisconsin. This building is hung from a central core of steel and concrete, and the glass walls, divided by metal strips, make a beautiful light pattern against the floors. Wright also set it apart from¹³ the other tall buildings, so that “its force and power of altitude,” he said, could be seen and appreciated.



Wright's Johnson Wax Company building.

¹⁰ like-minded architects: architects with similar ideas

¹¹ took pride in: felt proud of

¹² had most to do with: had the strongest influence in

¹³ set it apart from: built it away from

8] The skyscraper (its very name a poetic title) transformed the appearance of the American city, giving it a uniquely “American” look different from that of any other city in the world. It serves as ¹⁴ a symbol, perhaps, of the American desire to combine beauty and usefulness, to fit form to function. It is, as Louis Sullivan once called it, “every inch a proud and soaring thing.”

¹⁴ serves as: has use as; functions as



A modern skyline.

INTENSIVE QUESTIONING: *Yes-No* Questions

Refer to the reading as you choose between *yes* and *no* answers.

- | | |
|--|-------------|
| 1. Is the best American architecture found in buildings with a practical purpose? | Yes, it is. |
| 2. Is an airport a practical building? | _____ |
| 3. Is the skyscraper the most important American architectural design? | _____ |
| 4. Was the skyscraper developed in the eighteenth century? | _____ |
| 5. Did the low strength of stone and brick limit the height of a building? | _____ |
| 6. Did it limit the height to about twenty floors? | _____ |
| 7. Did the demand for taller buildings increase? | _____ |
| 8. Did the land become less valuable? | _____ |
| 9. Was the steel frame a direct response to the demand for higher buildings? | _____ |
| 10. Was the first office building to use steel frames built in 1955? | _____ |
| 11. Could a steel-frame building rise four times as high as one of brick or stone? | _____ |
| 12. Was the skyscraper born less than five years after the steel frame was used in building? | _____ |
| 13. Was New York the center of the development of the skyscraper? | _____ |
| 14. Was Chicago rapidly developing as a railroad center? | _____ |
| 15. Were there large numbers of skyscrapers in Chicago before 1900? | _____ |
| 16. Did some architects adopt older building forms when they designed skyscrapers? | _____ |
| 17. Did some decorate their buildings with copies of Greek ornaments? | _____ |
| 18. Were all the Chicago architects satisfied with this approach? | _____ |
| 19. Did some architects think the skyscraper ought to be different in appearance? | _____ |
| 20. Was Louis Sullivan one of these architects? | _____ |

INTENSIVE QUESTIONING: *Wh* Questions

Refer to the reading to find the correct answers.

1. When is American architecture at its best?
When it is concerned with buildings which have a practical purpose.
2. What buildings show American architecture at its most imaginative?

3. What is the single most important American architectural design?

4. When was the skyscraper developed?

5. What is known as the trademark of American building the world over?

6. What used to limit the height of the city office building?

7. How high could buildings without steel frames be built?

8. Why did the demand for taller buildings increase?

9. What was a direct response to this demand?

10. When was the first office building with steel frames constructed?

11. How high could the steel-framed buildings rise?

12. How long did it take the steel frame to revolutionize the design of office buildings?

13. Where was the center of this new architectural form?

14. In what two decades were a large number of the first skyscrapers built?

15. How did many of the early architects adapt older building forms?

Understanding Ideas

- 1. When and why was there an increased demand for taller buildings in the United States? What limited the height of buildings before the development of the steel frame? (paragraph 2)
- 2. How did many of the early architects plan the first skyscrapers? How did Sullivan’s design revolutionize the appearance of the skyscraper? (paragraphs 4 and 5)
- 3. What did Frank Lloyd Wright believe about designing business buildings? How did he prove his belief? (paragraph 7)

Applying Ideas

- 1. Describe a kind of architecture that is typical of the rural areas of your country. What are the buildings made of? What is unique about their design? Are they decorated on the outside? on the inside?
- 2. Describe a kind of architecture that is typical of your country or region. How high are the buildings? What are they made of? Are they adapted to the needs of your climate?
- 3. Describe a famous architectural design you have seen or know about. Who was the architect? What is the purpose of the building or the monument? How does the design suit the purpose for which the building or monument was built?

COMPOSITION

A. Summary: Notice that the last sentence of the first paragraph states the central thought of the reading. Write one-sentence summaries for the other paragraphs in the reading.

Paragraph 2. _____

Paragraph 3. _____

Paragraph 4. _____

Paragraph 5. _____

Paragraph 6. _____

Paragraph 7. _____

Paragraph 8. _____

B. Paragraph construction

1. In the following sentences, substitute *however* for *but*, *therefore* for *so*.

I have always wanted to see a skyscraper. But I never had the opportunity to visit a big city like New York or Chicago. I probably won't have the opportunity to visit the United States for a long time. So I suppose the next best thing is to go to the library and find out if it has any books about skyscrapers.

Use semicolons instead of periods between sentences 1 and 2, 3 and 4. Remember that sentences connected with *however* and *therefore* can be separated by periods or semicolons.

2. Write a paragraph with the title "A Skyscraper." Begin sentences *a*, *c*, and *e* with *There is/are*; begin sentences *b*, *d*, and *f* with *It is/They are*.

- a.* _____ a skyscraper on 50th Street.
- b.* _____ forty-nine stories tall.
- c.* _____ a fountain at the entrance.
- d.* _____ made of marble.
- e.* _____ thirty-two elevators in the lobby.
- f.* _____ very busy all day long.

3. Arrange the following sentences in a logical sequence. Do not refer to the reading.

A new champion is the Empire State Building, which rises 102 stories into the sky. However, it was not long before five other buildings topped the Woolworth Tower. Americans took pride in this tall skyscraper. The fifty-seven-story Woolworth Tower in New York, completed in 1912, became one of the most famous buildings in the world.

GRAMMAR. Noun Adjuncts

Model: A house made of brick is a brick **house**.

4.1 Follow the model to form constructions with noun adjuncts.

1. A hut made of mud _____
2. A wall made of mud _____
3. A wall made of stone _____
4. A fence made of stone _____
5. A roof made of straw _____
6. A floor made of tile _____
7. A ceiling made of cork _____
8. A window made of glass _____
9. A walk made of cement _____
10. A frame made of steel _____
11. A girder made of steel _____
12. A desk made of metal _____
13. A fence made of iron _____
14. A door made of glass _____
15. A ring made of gold _____
16. A ring made of silver _____
17. A plate made of gold _____
18. A pan made of copper _____
19. A tray made of brass _____
20. A cup made of tin _____
21. A can made of tin _____
22. A table made of glass _____
23. A coat made of wool _____
24. A dress made of silk _____
25. A shirt made of cotton _____
26. A coat made of fur _____
27. A collar made of fur _____
28. Stockings made of nylon _____
29. Sweaters made of wool _____
30. Shoes made of leather _____
31. Heels made of rubber _____
32. Soles made of rubber _____
33. A pillow made of feathers _____
34. A necklace made of diamonds _____

Noun Compounds

Model: We use the terminal for railroads.
The terminal is used for railroads.
It's a *railroad* terminal.

4.2 Follow the model as you supply two additional sentences.

1. We use the screen for movies.

2. We use the camera for movies.

3. We use the camera for television.

4. We use the fork for salad.

5. We use the dish for butter.

6. We use the plate for salad.

4.3 Answer the following questions:

1. What's a soup spoon?

It's a spoon used for soup.

2. What's a steak knife?

3. What's a butter knife?

4. What's a coffeepot?

5. What's an ashtray?

6. What's a trash can?

7. What's a doghouse?

8. What's a pigpen?

9. What's a cow barn?

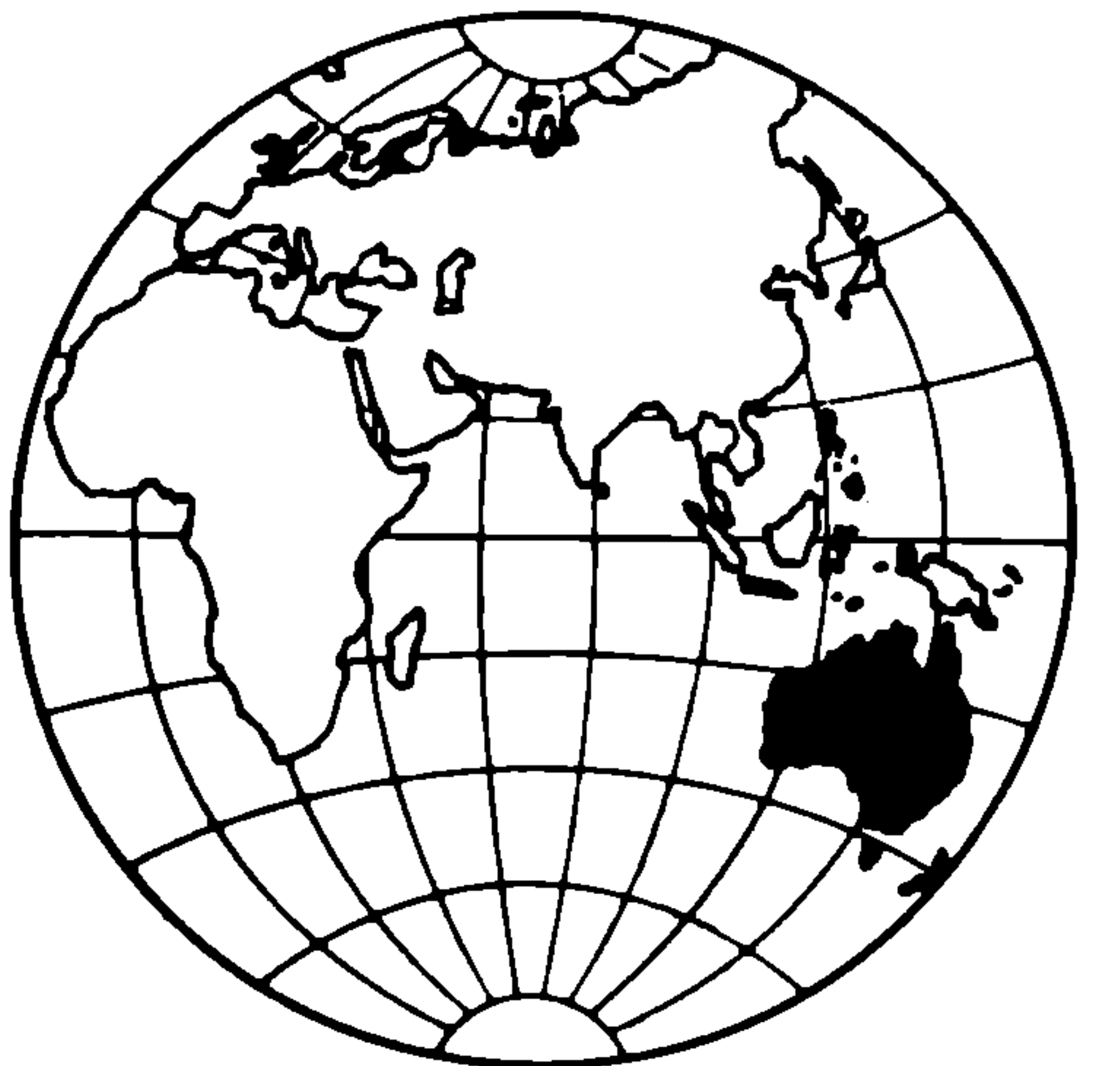
10. What's a chicken coop?

Review of Compounds

4.4 Give paraphrases for the following. Refer to the grammar exercises in the first unit.

- 1. a piano player _____
- 2. a movie director _____
- 3. a storyteller _____
- 4. a songwriter _____
- 5. a drinking cup _____
- 6. a writing desk _____
- 7. a waiting room _____
- 8. a movie actor _____
- 9. a movie theater _____
- 10. a bookstore _____
- 11. a ticket office _____
- 12. a balcony seat _____
- 13. a shoe store _____
- 14. a producer's office _____
- 15. a tabletop _____
- 16. a brick house (*noun adjunct*) _____
- 17. a glass window (*noun adjunct*) _____
- 18. a railroad terminal _____
- 19. a soup spoon _____
- 20. a coffeepot _____

Unit Two: A LANGUAGE IN COMMON



Five: WHO USES ENGLISH?

by **RANDOLPH QUIRK** Dr. Quirk, a professor of the English language at the University of London, is a well-known writer on historical and contemporary forms of English. With C. L. Wrenn of Oxford, he has produced an original and widely used grammar of Old English.¹ He has also written extensively on contemporary English usage. In this excerpt from his book *The Use of English*, based on broadcasts made on the British Broadcasting Corporation, Professor Quirk discusses an interesting question often asked by those who are concerned with English as an international language: "Who does English belong to?"

¹] There are two important meanings of the word "English" which we often confuse. The two meanings in question ² can be illustrated by the following statements:

A: He is English.

B: He speaks English.

Now of course we say "If *A*, then *B*," ³ and this will not be denied. Indeed, it will still be true if we replace "English" in *A* and *B* by other words which can refer both to nationality and to language. "If he is French, he speaks French," and we may go on ⁴ doing this in turn ⁵ with "German," "Swedish," "Spanish," and many others. But this is not always true, and an attempt to continue with the experiment will soon help us to recognise the identification of nation and language which causes a good deal of ⁶ trouble in the world. One comes up against ⁷ examples like these:

If he is Swiss, he speaks —.

If he is Belgian, he speaks —.⁸

¹ Old English: the earliest form of English, Anglo-Saxon, spoken in England from the fifth to the eleventh century ² in question: here discussed

³ "If *A*, then *B*": If *A* is true, then *B* is true. This is a formula often used in mathematics, logic, etc. Letters, such as *A* and *B*, represent words, phrases, or symbols: for example, "If $x = 2$ and $y = 3$, then $x + y = 5$."

⁴ go on: continue ⁵ in turn: one after another

⁶ a good deal of: a lot of ⁷ comes up against: meets; finds

⁸ The languages spoken in Switzerland are French, German, Italian, and Romansch. Both French and Flemish are spoken in Belgium.

2] So far as English is concerned,⁹ the truth of “If *A*, then *B*” simply points out the fact that in England everybody speaks English. But for Englishmen the truth of “If *A*, then *B*” is unfortunate because they tend to identify the name of the language with the name of one of the persons using it, and often to think of English as the private property¹⁰ of the English. In other words, there is a danger of switching the argument “If *B*, then *A*.”

3] The desire to use language as a sign of national identity (“If *B*, then *A*”) is a very natural one, and as a result language has played a large part in¹¹ national movements. Men have often felt the need to use their own language to show that they are different from others. This was true when the United States split off¹² from Britain. At that time some patriots even suggested that the Americans should adopt Hebrew or Greek! In the end, as everyone knows, the two countries adopted the practical solution of carrying on with¹³ the same language they had used before. For nearly 200 years Britain and the United States have shown the world that political independence and national identity can be complete without losing all the mutual advantages of a common language.



I am English. I am Australian.
I speak English. I speak English.



I am Venezuelan. I am Lebanese.
I speak Spanish. I speak Arabic.

4] In other words, language is not necessarily the private property of those who use it, just as French is not the private property of Frenchmen, nor English of Englishmen. English is spoken as a first

⁹ So far as English is concerned: If we are talking about English

¹⁰ the private property: something that belongs to someone (in this case, Englishmen) only and to nobody else

¹¹ played a large part in: had much influence on

¹² split off: separated

¹³ carrying on with: continuing to use

language in the United States, in Australia, in New Zealand, in most of Canada, in certain nations of Africa, and in other areas of the world. It is unreasonable to regard any language as the possession of a particular nation, and with no language is it more unreasonable than with English. This is not to say that ¹⁴ English is used by a greater number of speakers than any other language, for it is easily outnumbered in this respect by Chinese. But it is the most *international* of languages. A Dane and a Dutchman meeting in Rome will almost automatically find themselves speaking to each other in English. The pilots of a Russian plane approaching Cairo will use English to ask for landing instructions. Malayan lecturers use English when addressing their Malayan students in Kuala Lumpur. To people in Africa, Asia, and South America English is an important foreign language to master, not merely because it is the language of Britain or the United States, but because it provides ready access to ¹⁵ world scholarship and world trade. It is understood more widely than any other language.

5] It's true, then, that a great many people—and a great many *peoples*—are involved in the use of English. Millions of men and women in four continents have English as their first language, and millions in every part of the world use it as their second or foreign language. This gives us some idea of the importance of English, and it shows both the United States and Britain that the language is not the possession of these two nations alone. It is also the property of the Canadian and the Indian, the Australian and the Nigerian. It belongs to all those who use it.

¹⁴ This is not to say that: This does not mean that

¹⁵ provides ready access to: opens doors to

**If he is Nigerian,
what language does he speak?**

**He might speak Efik, Ibo, Hausa,
English, or several other languages.**



INTENSIVE QUESTIONING: *Yes-No* Questions

Refer to the reading as you choose between *yes* and *no* answers.

1. Are there two important uses of the word “English”?

Yes, there are.
2. Do we often confuse them?
3. Can the two meanings be illustrated by two statements?
4. If someone is English, does he speak English?
5. Are there other words which can refer both to nationality and to language?
6. Is it always true that the same word refers both to nationality and to language?
7. Are nations and languages often identified with each other?
8. Does this identification cause trouble?
9. If someone is Swiss, does he speak Swiss?
10. Do Englishmen tend to identify people with language?
11. Is there a danger in saying “If *B*, then *A*”?
12. Is “If he speaks English, he is English” an example of “If *B*, then *A*”?
13. Has language played a large part in national movements?
14. Have men used their own language to show they are different from others?
15. Did some Americans try to replace English as the national language?
16. Did they try to replace English with American Indian languages?
17. Did they adopt a practical solution in the end?
18. Can political independence be complete if two nations have the same language?
19. Are there mutual advantages in having a common language?
20. Is language the private property of those who use it?

INTENSIVE QUESTIONING: *Wh* Questions

Refer to the reading to find the correct answers.

1. How many important meanings of the word “English” do we often confuse?
We often confuse two important meanings.
2. How can the two meanings be illustrated?

3. What language would you speak if you were an Englishman?

4. What language would you speak if you were a Frenchman?

5. What are some other words that refer both to nationality and to language?

6. What is “nation” often identified with?

7. What is “language” often identified with?

8. What causes a good deal of trouble?

9. What are two countries where the name of the people and the name of the language are not the same?

10. What language does everybody in England speak?

11. What have men used their own language to show?

12. What did some patriots suggest after the United States split off from Britain?

13. What practical solution did they adopt in the end?

14. What have Britain and the United States shown the world?

15. Which language has a greater number of speakers than English?

Understanding Ideas

1. The author says “If *A*, then *B*” is true for English. Why do Englishmen tend to identify people with language? In what countries would it not be true?
2. The author says there is danger in saying “If *B*, then *A*.” What is the danger?
3. The author says it is possible to have a language in common and yet to have political independence and national identity. What does he mean? Try to find examples that support his arguments—countries that use Spanish, Arabic, etc.

Applying Ideas

1. Do you have one national language, or do you have several? What is the name of the language you speak? Is it the same as the name of your people?
2. England and the United States have a language in common. In what ways do you suppose this common language helps the two countries?
3. What are some of the uses that are made of English as an international language—in aviation, in world trade, etc.?

COMPOSITION

A. Arrange the following sentences in a logical order. Do not refer to the reading.

This was true when the United States split off from Britain. At that time some patriots even suggested that the Americans should adopt Hebrew or Greek! Men have often felt the need to use their own language to show that they are different from others.

B. From the general to the specific: First answer the question with a complete statement containing *have* + past participle. Then add a statement of your own in the past tense.

Model: Have you ever studied English?
I have studied English for two years.
I studied it in high school.

- 1. Have you read an essay by Randolph Quirk?

- 2. Have you studied several languages?

- 3. Have you learned more about the use of English?

- 4. Have you read about the danger of identifying nations with language?

- 5. Have you learned that English has many uses as an international language?

C. Writing paragraphs

- 1. Develop a paragraph by the use of examples. Begin your paragraph with the following two sentences: *“If he is English, he speaks English.” This kind of statement can be made about many other peoples and languages.*
- 2. Develop a paragraph by examples. Begin it with the following two sentences: *You cannot always identify language and nation. For example, you cannot say, “If he speaks English, he is English.”*

GRAMMAR. Tag Questions

Model: All Englishmen can speak English.
All Englishmen can speak English, can't they? Yes, they can.
Not all Belgians can speak French.
Not all Belgians can speak French, can they? No, they can't.

5.1 Rewrite the following sentences, adding a tag question at the end.
Refer to the reading as you choose between *yes* and *no* answers.

- 1. All Frenchmen can speak French.
_____?
- 2. Many people in Switzerland can understand German.
_____?
- 3. Many people in Switzerland can speak Flemish.
_____?
- 4. Belgians can speak Belgian.
_____?
- 5. Nation hasn't been identified with language.
_____?
- 6. The name of the country won't always be the same as the name of the language.
_____?
- 7. Identification of nation and language can cause trouble.
_____?
- 8. Men haven't used their language to show they are different.
_____?
- 9. Two uses of "English" have been confused.
_____?
- 10. Englishmen haven't tended to identify English with England.
_____?
- 11. English has been used in world trade.
_____?
- 12. Englishmen and Americans can't speak the same language.
_____?

Model: English is widely used.

English is widely used, isn't it?

Yes, it is.

Chinese isn't widely used.

Chinese isn't widely used, is it?

Yes, it is.

5.2 Rewrite the following sentences, adding a tag question at the end.
Refer to the reading as you choose between *yes* and *no* answers.

1. Language is the private property of those who use it.

_____?

2. English isn't spoken widely in Australia.

_____?

3. Flemish isn't spoken in Sweden.

_____?

4. English is spoken by more people than Chinese.

_____?

5. English is an important foreign language in Chile.

_____?

Model: There are two meanings of the word "English."

There are two meanings of the word "English,"
aren't there?

Yes, there are.

5.3 Rewrite the following sentences, adding a tag question with *there* at the end.

1. There isn't a danger in saying "If *B*, then *A*."

_____?

2. There are mutual advantages in having a common language.

_____?

3. There weren't any patriots who suggested that
Americans should adopt Greek.

_____?

4. There weren't any patriots who suggested that
Americans adopt an American Indian language.

_____?

5. There are many people in Africa who speak English.

_____?

Model: Americans and Englishmen speak different languages, don't they?
American's don't speak English, do they?

No, they don't.
Yes, they do.

5.4 Rewrite the following sentences, adding a tag question at the end. Refer to the reading as you choose between *yes* and *no* answers.

1. All Frenchmen speak French.
_____?
2. All Belgians don't speak Flemish.
_____?
3. People often identify nation and language.
_____?
4. Language plays a large part in national movements.
_____?
5. A Belgian doesn't speak Belgian.
_____?
6. Men used their own language to show they were different.
_____?
7. Pilots don't use English in asking for landing instructions.
_____?
8. Danes and Dutchmen use Swedish to speak to each other.
_____?
9. Some Americans suggested replacing English as the national language.
_____?
10. They didn't try to replace English with American Indian languages.
_____?
11. They wanted to assert their national identity.
_____?
12. Australians don't speak Danish.
_____?
13. Languages belong to all those who use them.
_____?

Six: A CONVERSATION ON BRITISH AND AMERICAN ENGLISH

by **RANDOLPH QUIRK** and **ALBERT H. MARCKWARDT** All those who use English are interested in its many varieties and dialects. With the differences that undeniably exist, why do Englishmen and Americans have little trouble understanding one another? In the following, Professor Quirk, an authority on British English, and Professor Marckwardt, an authority on American English, attempt to explain how these two varieties are "intercomprehensible."¹ In their conversation, which is taken from a series of radio broadcasts produced jointly by the British Broadcasting Corporation and the Voice of America, the two professors show the ease and informality of experts who are at home with² their subject and with each other.



1] Q: What is there about this English language of ours which makes it possible for the two of us—having grown up, perhaps, 4,000 miles apart—to be able to communicate so easily?

2] M: Well, we might begin by recognizing that a language consists of sounds, words, inflectional forms,³ and the arrangement of words into phrases and sentences.

3] Q: Let's begin with one of these: the inflexional forms—for example, the noun plurals and verb tenses. Surely, in this respect,⁴ British and American English have not diverged very much, have they?

¹ *intercomprehensible*: understandable between peoples

² *are at home with*: know very well

³ *inflectional forms*: forms of words or parts of words that show tense, number, person, etc.; for example, change—*changed*,” “word—words,” “go—goes”

⁴ *in this respect*: on this point; concerning this matter

4] M: No, not at all. Thousands of nouns form their plurals in the regular fashion in the manner of *cat—cats; dog—dogs; church—churches*. And this is the same on both sides of the Atlantic. Even the few nouns which behave irregularly, such as *knife—knives; tooth—teeth; sheep—sheep*, have the same form in San Francisco that they do in Nottingham—or in Melbourne, Australia. And wouldn't you say the same thing for the verbs?

5] Q: Yes, I think I would! Here again the regular forms are so overwhelming in number, aren't they? You know: *I love, he loves, they loved, they have loved; I wait, he waits, they waited, they have waited*. Compared with these, there are only about 120 or so which are irregular verbs like *see* and *saw*. And the point is ⁵ that here again we share the irregularities on both sides of the Atlantic. For most of the verbs, our two forms of the language are pretty well identical.

6] M: Well, that depends on what you mean by identity. I can think, for example, of instances where our spellings are alike but the pronunciation is different. For example, the past of the verb *eat*.

7] Q: Yes: the past tense is spelled in both forms of English *a-t-e*. But I pronounce this as [ɛt] to rhyme with *get* as do most of us in Britain, and I think that we would tend to regard the American pronunciation as a relatively uneducated one. Isn't it true that most educated people in the United States would rhyme *ate* with *late* and would regard the British pronunciation as a bit odd?

8] M: More than a bit odd, I would say. Actually, to us, [ɛt] seems countrified, even uneducated. We could supply other examples here, but I think we should go on to the order of words in phrases and sentences. After all, it is through word order, rather than inflectional forms, that so much of our grammatical meaning is conveyed in the English language.

9] Q: Yes, and I suppose this is one of the reasons why we have so little difficulty in understanding each other. Over the past few weeks, you know, you and I have been sitting down together, writing hundreds of sentences and talking to each other, speaking phrases and sen-

⁵ the point is: the important thing is

tences by the thousand.⁶ Yet it's hard to think of any place where you and I would have arranged the principal sentence elements in a different way.

10] M: You're right of course. For example, the entire English-speaking world puts the subject before the verb and the object after it in making a statement.

11] Q: None of these grammatical differences add up to very much,⁷ do they? Let's talk briefly now about pronunciation. Here generalisation is difficult— isn't it?—because there is such a wide variation within countries as well as among them. Take the difference which is probably best known: the sounding or not sounding of *r* after vowels in words like *bird* and *hurt*. It's not just a matter of saying that Americans sound the *r*'s and that Britishers don't. After all, as you know, in Scotland, Lancashire, Ireland, and the whole of the Western counties of England really, the *r*'s are pronounced more or less as they are with you.

12] M: Yes, and in the United States, on the other hand,⁸ you will find a rather large area in New England, almost all of the area around New York City, and various parts of the coastal South,⁹ where Americans don't sound the *r*'s. And it is equally difficult to generalize about the differences in pronunciation of words like *dance*, which I pronounce with the vowel in *cap* [æ] and you pronounce with the vowel in *father* [ɑ]. In the United States we vary a good deal. For example, eastern New England has the [ɑ] type of pronunciation.

13] Q: As you know, we don't have [ɑ] at all widely either. It occurs among educated speakers of course and occurs in the South and in London, but in the Northern counties of England people have a pronunciation similar to yours.

14] M: There are, I think, about 600 commonly used words in English which all go back to an [æ] pronunciation in Shakespeare's time.

⁶ phrases and sentences by the thousand: thousands of phrases and sentences

⁷ add up to very much: have much meaning; are very important

⁸ on the other hand: in contrast; on the contrary

⁹ the coastal South: the southern part of the United States along the Atlantic Ocean

Now of these 600 there are only about 150 words like *dance* where today we do find the variation between [æ] and [ɑ] that we have been talking about. In the other 450 [æ] is common to both England and America. We both say *cap*, *sand*, *bat*, *bad* with [æ].

15] Q: I think this is a further reason why we should insist on people not exaggerating the differences between British and American English. They make it sound as if we in Britain and America speak utterly different languages, when again the important thing is that there is a great deal of overlap, isn't there?

16] M: Certainly there is. Everything that we've talked about today has shown the degree to which British and American English are *intercomprehensible*, understandable between peoples, understandable between national boundaries.

INTENSIVE QUESTIONING: Yes-No Questions

Refer to the reading as you choose between *yes* and *no* answers.

1. Can Quirk and Marckwardt talk together easily?

Yes, they can.
2. Did Quirk and Marckwardt grow up together?

3. Does a language consist of words only?

4. Have British and American English diverged very much in their inflectional forms?

5. Do many nouns form their plurals regularly?

6. Is *cat*—*cats* an example of a regular plural?

7. Is *tooth*—*teeth* an example of a regular plural?

8. Do irregular plurals have the same form in British and American English?

9. Are most of the verb forms regular?

10. Is *wait* a regular verb?

11. Is *see* a regular verb?

12. Are there 500 irregular verbs?

13. Are the irregularities shared on both sides of the Atlantic?

14. Is *ate* pronounced the same in British and American English?

15. Do the English regard *ate* (rhyming with *late*) as an uneducated pronunciation?

16. Does the pronunciation of *ate* (rhyming with *get*) seem countrified to an American?

17. Is much of the meaning of English conveyed through the word order?

18. Is this one of the reasons why Quirk and Marckwardt have so little difficulty understanding each other?

19. Is there a wide range of variation in pronunciation within England and the United States?

20. Do some Britishers sound the *r* in words like *bird*?

21. Are there some Americans who don't sound the *r* in words like *bird*?

22. Do all Americans have the same vowel in *dance* as they do in *cap*?

INTENSIVE QUESTIONING: *Wh* Questions

Refer to the reading to find the correct answers.

1. What does a language consist of?
A language consists of sounds, words, inflectional forms, and the arrangement of words into phrases and sentences.
2. What are two examples of inflectional forms?

3. How much have British and American English diverged in their inflectional forms?

4. What are two nouns that behave irregularly?

5. How many irregular verbs are there in English?

6. What is an instance where spelling is alike but pronunciation is different?

7. How is the past tense of *eat* spelled in both forms of English?

8. How do the British pronounce *ate*?

9. How do the Americans pronounce *ate*?

10. How would the British tend to regard the American pronunciation?

11. How do Americans regard the British pronunciation of *ate*?

12. How is much of the grammatical meaning conveyed in English?

13. In how many places would Quirk and Marckwardt have arranged the principal sentence elements in a different way?

14. Where does the entire English-speaking world put the subject and the object?

15. Why is generalization difficult about pronunciation?

Understanding Ideas

1. How much do the inflections (specifically, noun plurals and verb tenses) differ in British and American English? How does the essential similarity affect common understanding?
2. What do Quirk and Marckwardt say about word order in English? Is it an essential part of the grammar? Does it differ much between British and American English?
3. What are some of the differences in pronunciation between British and American English? Why is generalization about pronunciation difficult?

Applying Ideas

1. Go through the reading and pick out the differences in spelling between British and American English. (Quirk's comments are printed with British spelling, Marckwardt's with American.) Are the differences significant? Did they interfere with your understanding of the reading? What do you think should be done about the differences between American and British spelling?
2. Discuss the dialects in your own language. Compare the dialect you speak with another you know something about. What are some of the differences in vocabulary? in pronunciation? in word form? in word order?
3. Are there many differences between the written and spoken forms of your language? If so, describe some of the differences.

COMPOSITION

A. Arrange the following sentences in a logical order. Do not refer to the reading .

Take the British-American difference which is probably best known: the sounding or not sounding of *r* after vowels in words like *bird*. It's not just a matter of saying that Americans sound the *r*'s and that Britishers don't. It is difficult to generalize about pronunciation because there is such a wide variation within countries as well as among them. After all, as you know, in Scotland and other parts of the British Isles the *r*'s are pronounced. And many Americans in New England don't sound the *r*'s.

B. Finish the statements following each of the models.

past tense and *would*

Model: If I had a radio, I would listen to the BBC and the VOA.

If I heard a broadcast on the BBC, _____

If I heard a broadcast on the VOA, _____

If I understood every word I heard, _____

past tense and *could*

Model: If I had enough money, I could buy a dictionary.

If I bought a dictionary, _____

If someone asked me how to pronounce a word, _____

If someone asked me what a word meant, _____

If the dictionary were not too heavy, _____

past tense and *might*

Model: If I had enough money, I might take a trip to New York.

If I went to New York, _____ (*skyscraper*)

If I went to the 100th floor, _____

If the elevator broke down, _____

C. Writing paragraphs

1. Develop a paragraph by the use of examples. Begin your paragraph with the following sentence: *In vocabulary, grammar, and pronunciation, English is basically the same in Great Britain and the United States.*
2. Develop a paragraph by the use of contrasting examples. Begin your paragraph with the following sentence: *Differences in pronunciation are not consistently British or American.*

GRAMMAR. Shortened Questions

Model: S1: I can speak French. Can you?
S2: Yes, I can. (or) No, I can't.
S1: I haven't been to London. Have you?
S2: Yes, I have. (or) No, I haven't.
S1: I'm studying Spanish. Are you?
S2: Yes, I am. (or) No, I'm not.

6.1 Follow the model as you make conversations with affirmative shortened questions. Decide whether you want to give a *yes* or a *no* answer.

- 1. S1: I would like to have a good accent in English. _____?
S2: _____
- 2. S1: I haven't learned all the irregular verbs. _____?
S2: _____
- 3. S1: I'm accustomed to hearing an American accent. _____?
S2: _____
- 4. S1: I can read Shakespeare easily. _____?
S2: _____
- 5. S1: I haven't heard an Australian speak. _____?
S2: _____
- 6. S1: I'm still having trouble with English spelling. _____?
S2: _____

6.2 Make shortened affirmative questions with subjects other than *you*.

- 1. You can spell the plural of *knife*.
(Ken) Can Ken?
- 2. Ken has used American spellings.
(Kathy) _____?
- 3. We are used to many different accents in English.
(they) _____?
- 4. I can't pronounce *r* correctly.
(Ken and Kathy) _____?
- 5. I haven't thought about the dialects of English before.
(anyone else in the class) _____?
- 6. I'm going to find out more about the dialects of my own language.
(teacher) _____?

Model: S1: I drop the *r* in *car*. Do you?

S2: Yes, I do. (or) No, I don't.

S1: I sound the *r* in *bird*. Does Ken?

S2: Yes, he does. (or) No, he doesn't.

S1: Ken rhymed *ate* with *late*. Did Kathy?

S2: Yes, she did. (or) No, she didn't.

6.3 Follow the model as you make conversations with affirmative shortened questions. Decide whether you want to give a *yes* or a *no* answer.

1. S1: I speak British English. (*you*) _____?

S2: _____

2. S1: I know the plural of *sheep*. (*Ken*) _____?

S2: _____

3. S1: I pronounce *can't* with the [ɑ] sound in *father*. (*you*) _____?

S2: _____

4. S1: I rhyme *ate* with *get*. (*Kathy*) _____?

S2: _____

5. S1: I liked the Shakespeare play. (*you*) _____?

S2: _____

6. S1: I listened to the BBC last night. (*you*) _____?

S2: _____

6.4 Make shortened affirmative questions with subjects other than *you*.

1. You know all the irregular verbs.
(*Kathy*) _____?

2. Ken drops the *r* at the ends of words.
(*the other students in your class*) _____?

3. People in Chicago pronounce *dance* with [æ].
(*people in London*) _____?

4. A Scotsman pronounces the *r* in *hurt*.
(*a New Yorker*) _____?

5. I think it sounds countrified to rhyme *ate* with *get*.
(*Quirk*) _____?

6. Quirk thinks the differences between American and British English have been exaggerated.
(*Marckwardt*) _____?

Negative Shortened Questions

Model: S1: I drop the *r* in *bird*.

Doesn't everybody?

S2: Many Americans don't.

6.5 Practice the following conversations that contain negative shortened questions.

1. S1: I use the vowel [a] in *ask*.

_____ all educated speakers of English?

S2: Many Americans don't.

2. S1: I understand British English.

_____ every educated American?

S2: Of course they do.

3. S1: Most nouns form their plurals in the regular fashion.

_____ most verbs?

S2: Yes, they do. Only about 120 are irregular.

4. S1: I think it sounds countrified to pronounce *ate* as if it rhymed with *get*.

_____ you?

S2: I don't, but many Americans do.

5. S1: Professor Marckwardt would spell *generalization* with a *z*.

_____ Professor Quirk?

S2: No, he wouldn't. He'd spell it with an *s*.

6. S1: Londoners drop the *r* in *bird*.

_____ Dubliners?

S2: No, the Irish, like most Americans, sound the *r*.

7. S1: Professor Marckwardt sounds the *r* in *bird*.

_____ all Americans?

S2: No. The *r* is dropped in New York City and parts of New England and the South.

8. S1: Shakespeare used the vowel [æ] in *father*.

_____ Englishmen today?

S2: No. Both British and Americans use [ɑ].

9. S1: I prefer a Boston accent.

_____ you?

S2: Of course I do. I come from Boston.

Seven: AMERICAN ENGLISH: A MELTING POT

by **ALBERT H. MARCKWARDT** Professor Marckwardt has had a distinguished career as teacher and writer. He has published widely on American dialects, English phonology, and the history of the English language. In addition to his university teaching in the United States—for many years he was at the University of Michigan and he is presently at Princeton University—Dr. Marckwardt has served as Director of the English Language Institute in Mexico. He has also been a Fulbright lecturer¹ in American Studies in Austria and has participated in courses for teachers of English in Colombia, Panama, and Italy. The essay that follows, which is part of a chapter from Professor Marckwardt's book on American English, describes how and why Americans acquired some of their distinctive vocabulary.



1] Considered from the point of view of vocabulary, there are few “pure” languages. English has been notorious as a word borrower, but every Western European language has added to its word stock² by adopting words from other languages. Even Indo-European, the parent of most of the languages found today in Europe and many in western Asia, appears to have borrowed words from other languages.

2] One reason for borrowing words is the need for talking about new things. When people move to a different environment, they im-

¹ a Fulbright lecturer: A person sent from the United States to other countries to lecture or teach using a Fulbright grant. A Fulbright grant uses money owed to the United States government but retained by a country to promote international cultural exchange.

² word stock: store of words; vocabulary

mediately find new things that have to be named. Columbus, for example, on first landing in America, wrote that his men “seized by force several Indians on the first island, in order that they might learn from us, and in like manner ³ tell us about those things in those lands of which they themselves had knowledge.”

3] The migration of English people to North America created the same need for new words in their vocabulary. As soon as the settlers landed in Virginia and Massachusetts, they found plants and animals which were new to them. Some of the fish they caught were unlike anything they had seen before. The land was occupied by tribes of people who spoke a strange language, wore strange clothing, prepared strange foods, and lived by customs different from anything the English had ever seen. Even the landscape was different from the English countryside. Names had to be provided for all these aspects of their new life.

4] The American colonists borrowed first, of course, from the Indians, since it was easier to take the Indian name for a new plant, animal, or fish, or features of the landscape than to create a new English word for it. Because some of the sounds of the Indian languages were quite different from English speech sounds, many of these words were considerably changed in the borrowing process. There were not many Indian words which were added to the American vocabulary, no more than a hundred or so, but some have remained to the present day.

5] The following list contains some of the principal loan words ⁴ in present-day American English from the various Indian languages of the North American continent:

TREES AND PLANTS	ANIMALS	FOODS
hickory	moose	hominy
pecan	raccoon	pone
squash	skunk	succotash

6] Besides the various Indian influences, American English reflects the other non-English cultures which the colonists and frontiersmen

³ in like manner: in the same way; similarly
⁴ loan words: words taken by a language from other languages

met in their journey across the continent. In moving westward, the English-speaking settlers met the French explorers and traders who had streamed into ⁵ the valleys of the St. Lawrence and Mississippi Rivers. From the French the Americans took words which had to do with ⁶ exploring (*portage*), with foods (*chowder*), with descriptions of the country (*prairie*), with plants and animals (*pumpkin* and *gopher*), and some, curiously enough, with money. The words *cent* and *dime*, for example, were borrowed from the French after the American Revolution.

7] The Spanish settlements encountered by the English-speaking settlers as they moved southward and westward toward Spanish Mexico were more permanent and substantial than those of the French in the Great Lakes area.⁷ Spanish has contributed more than 400 words to the American English vocabulary, some of which had been taken by the Spaniards from the many American Indian languages they encountered. Some of the words have to do with foods (*chile* and *tamale*), some with plants and animals (*alfalfa* and *coyote*), and some with buildings (*cafetería* and *patio*). In Spanish, *-eria* was and is still a highly productive ⁸ suffix. In all, American English has at least forty derivatives from this single suffix, words such as *grocery*, *bookery*, and *snackery*.⁹

8] The Dutch, the Germans, the Africans, and other immigrants have also contributed to the vocabulary of American English. In the East the English settlers encountered the Dutch colonies surrounding New Amsterdam, which later became New York. Although there are relatively few Dutch words which have remained in the American vocabulary, they are in wide use. Such an “American” word as *boss*, for example, is directly Dutch, and for that matter ¹⁰ so is the word *Yankee*. By the late eighteenth century, almost a hundred thousand Germans had settled in America, the majority of them in the East

⁵ *streamed into*: moved in large numbers into

⁶ *had to do with*: were related to; were used in

⁷ *Great Lakes area*: area around, but mainly on the east, south, and west of the five great lakes of North America (Erie, Ontario, Huron, Michigan, Superior)

⁸ *highly productive*: freely and commonly used

⁹ *snackery*: A snack is a light meal.

¹⁰ *for that matter*: by the way; incidentally

and in Pennsylvania, where a variety of their German language is still spoken by a number of people. Such common words as *hamburger*, *noodle*, and *loafer* are borrowed from German. From various African languages, first brought by Negroes imported into the American colonies, have come a number of words; for example, the word *voodoo* comes from an African language, as does the word *juke* in *jukebox*. The Swedes, Norwegians, and Danes have contributed words of their own, and so have the large numbers of Italians. In fact, wherever large numbers of immigrants have settled, words borrowed from them have found their way into¹¹ the local vocabulary.¹²

9] The millions of people from different parts of the world, who have settled in America, have all contributed something to American English. Though in the main ¹³ conforming to the new ways of life they found in the new country, they could not help leaving some mark of their language on English. In drawing upon ¹⁴ these many elements which go to make up ¹⁵ American culture, Americans have made their kind of English a melting pot in miniature.

¹¹ found their way into: become a part of

¹² local vocabulary: words used in that area

¹³ in the main: mainly; generally

¹⁴ drawing upon: taking from

¹⁵ go to make up: become parts of; constitute

INTENSIVE QUESTIONING: *Yes-No* Questions

Refer to the reading as you choose between *yes* and *no* answers.

1. Are there many languages with a pure vocabulary?

No, there aren't.
2. Has English been notorious as a word borrower?
3. Has every Western European language borrowed words?
4. Is Indo-European the parent of most of the languages found in Europe today?
5. Do people who move encounter new things to name?
6. Did Columbus need to learn from the Indians?
7. Did the English who came to North America need new words?
8. Did they find new plants and animals?
9. Did the Indians they meet speak a familiar language?
10. Were the customs of the Indians familiar to the English?
11. Was the landscape the same as that in England?
12. Did the English language have names for these new things?
13. Was it easier to create a new name than to borrow it?
14. Were all the sounds of the Indian languages the same as English speech sounds?
15. Were there many Indian words added to the American vocabulary?
16. Have some of these words remained to the present day?
17. Did the English settlers borrow words from the French explorers?
18. Did they borrow any words which had to do with money?

INTENSIVE QUESTIONING: *Wh* Questions

Refer to the reading to find the correct answers.

1. From what point of view are there few pure languages?
From the point of view of vocabulary.
2. What language has been notorious as a word borrower?

3. How many Western European languages have borrowed words?

4. What is the parent of most of the languages in Europe today?

5. What is one reason for borrowing words?

6. What do people who move to a different environment immediately find?

7. What did Columbus's men do on first landing in America?

8. Why did they seize the Indians?

9. What did the migration of English people to North America create the need for?

10. What did the settlers find as soon as they landed?

11. What were the tribes that occupied the land like?

12. What was the landscape like?

13. What did names have to be provided for?

14. Who did the American colonists borrow from first?

15. Why were many of these words considerably changed in the borrowing process?

16. Who did the frontiersmen meet in the valley of the St. Lawrence?

Understanding Ideas

1. What are some of the words the American colonists borrowed from the Indians? Why did the colonists borrow first from the Indians?
2. What are the two other European languages that the frontiersmen met in their journey across the continent? What are some of the words borrowed from these languages?
3. Name three groups of immigrants who have contributed to the vocabulary of American English. Give examples of words borrowed from each.

Applying Ideas

1. What are some of the words and expressions in your language that you think might well be adopted by English? What are some of the words and expressions in English that you think might be usefully borrowed by your language?
2. Discuss the words that your language has borrowed. Has it borrowed any words from English? Has it borrowed words from other Indo-European languages? Has it borrowed words from neighboring languages.

COMPOSITION

- A. Arrange the following sentences in a logical order. Do not refer to the reading.

Some of the fish they caught were unlike anything they had seen before. The land was occupied by tribes who spoke a strange language and lived by customs different from anything the English had ever seen. Names had to be provided for all these aspects of their new life. The migration of English people to North America created the need for new words in their vocabulary. Even the landscape was different from the English countryside. As soon as the settlers landed in Virginia and Massachusetts, they found plants and animals which were new to them.

B. Turn the sentences into indirect statements.

Model: "English is notorious as a word borrower."

Marckwardt says that English is notorious as a word borrower.

1. "There are few 'pure' languages."

2. "Every Western European language has added to its word stock by adopting words from other languages."

3. "Even Indo-European appears to have borrowed words from other languages."

4. "One reason for borrowing words is the need for talking about new things."

5. "When people move to a different environment, they immediately find new things that have to be named."

6. "The migration of English people to North America created the same need for new words."

7. "As soon as the settlers landed in Virginia and Massachusetts, they found plants and animals which were new to them."

8. "Names had to be provided for all these aspects of their new life."

Combine the quoted sentences in 1, 2, and 3 into a single paragraph with this introduction: *Marckwardt had this to say about word borrowing.* Combine the quoted sentences in 5, 6, 7, and 8 into a single paragraph with this introduction: *Marckwardt had this to say about the need for borrowing new words.*

C. Writing paragraphs

1. Develop a paragraph by the use of examples. Begin with the following sentence: *When people move to a new environment, they immediately find new things that have to be named.*
2. Develop a paragraph by the use of examples. Begin with the following sentence: *Two European languages, French and Spanish,*

contributed a number of words to the vocabulary of the settlers and frontiersmen.

3. Develop a paragraph with concrete detail. Begin with the following sentence: *The Dutch, the Germans, and the Africans were among the immigrant groups who contributed to the vocabulary of American English.*

GRAMMAR. Special Tag Questions

Situation: An Englishman meets an American and, in good fun, each challenges the other to justify his own form of language.

Model: A: Americans speak excellent English.

E: They do, do they?

A: Of course they do. Haven't you heard?

7.1 Supply the special tag questions. Then practice the following dialogues. Be sure to use the correct intonation on the tag questions implying doubt, disbelief, or challenge.

1. E: Americans all talk through their noses.

A: _____?

E: That's what somebody told me. I've never talked to an American before.

2. A: You Englishmen talk too fast.

E: _____?

A: Well, the one I heard on the radio certainly talked fast.

3. A: British English has borrowed many words from us.

E: _____?

A: Of course it has. What else would you call a *moose*?

4. E: Englishmen can spell better than Americans.

A: _____?

E: Of course they can. Who ever heard of spelling *labour* without a *u*?

5. A: There are a lot of American words in British English today.

E: _____?

A: Yes, there are. And you are borrowing more all the time.

7.2 Assume that Speaker 1 is making a statement which you doubt or which you disagree with. Supply the special tag questions.

1. S1: I can speak Eskimo.

S2: _____?

2. S1: I've visited the North Pole many times.

S2: _____?

3. S1: I was engaged to an Eskimo girl.

S2: _____?

4. S1: I want to go back to the North Pole.

S2: _____?

Short Responses with *too*, *so*, *either*, *neither*

Model: S1: Ken speaks American English.

S2: So does Kathy. (or) Kathy does, too.

S1: Ken doesn't speak British English.

S2: Kathy doesn't either. (or) Neither does Kathy.

7.3 Complete the following dialogues. Then practice them with your classmates. First practice responses with *too* and *either*. Then practice the equivalent sentences with *so* and *neither*.

1. S1: English has borrowed many words.

S2: Other European languages _____, too.

So _____

2. S1: The word *hamburger* was borrowed from German.

S2: The word *noodle* _____, too.

So _____

3. S1: English isn't a pure language.

S2: Other European languages _____ either.

Neither _____

4. S1: Some of the plants the colonists found were new to them.

S2: Some of the animals _____, too.

So _____

5. S1: Americans use the word *cent*.

S2: The French _____

6. S1: The Dutch didn't settle in the Southwest.

S2: The French _____

7. S1: The word *voodoo* comes from an African language.

S2: The *juke* in *jukebox* _____

8. S1: The word *chile* doesn't come from German.

S2: The word *tamale* _____

9. S1: The Swedes have contributed words of their own.

S2: The Danes _____

10. S1: Columbus didn't have names for the new plants and animals.

S2: The English settlers _____

Eight: THE WAY AUSTRALIANS SPEAK

by **A. G. MITCHELL** Mr. Mitchell is a professor of English at the University of Sydney. As he points out in the first chapter of his book, *The Pronunciation of English in Australia*, "The Australian accent has long been a favourite subject of inconclusive discussion." Unfortunately the discussion is usually conducted by amateurs—the "uncompromising purist,"¹ to whom Australian speech is corrupt and hopeless; the "tactful visitor,"² who is kind enough to say that not all Australian speech is offensive; the enraged patriot,³ who is willing to claim that Australian English is "the best form of English speech"; and the "fence-sitter,"⁴ who says there is no such thing as an Australian accent." Professor Mitchell's book is one of the first attempts to study seriously the English of this vast continent, to give us some insights into its special characteristics and its relation to the other forms of English spoken throughout the world.



¹] Australian speech is remarkably uniform. In Australia there are none of the wide variations that exist between, say, Norfolk and Devonshire speech in England.

¹ "uncompromising purist": a person with a narrow and usually very theoretical view on a matter who does not try to understand or agree with others who have different views (in this case, a person who strongly insists that language should be pure and correct by a certain standard of grammar, no matter how people really use that language in everyday life)

² "tactful visitor": visitor (in this case, to Australia) who is careful to say and do only such thing as please the people of that place

³ enraged patriot: a person (in this case, Australian) who strongly believes that his country is the best in everything and is angry at others who criticize it

⁴ fence-sitter: a person who does not support either side of an argument

2] That Australian English is spoken more or less ⁵ uniformly throughout the continent seems at first surprising in so large a country. But on reflection ⁶ it is possible to understand how this uniformity has come about.⁷ For one thing, Australia has a comparatively short history, whereas the establishment of local dialects usually requires some time. For another, conditions of life on the continent have not encouraged the growth of small, isolated communities likely to develop their own distinct customs and ways of speech. There has always been a large shifting population ⁸ in Australia. Many people are required to move because of their jobs—for example, teachers, railway workers, clerks, and many of the clergy. Trades which move with the seasons, such as sheep-shearing and harvesting, keep another large section of the population on the move.⁹ Finally, universal education ¹⁰ has tended to exert a levelling effect ¹¹ on Australian speech, as no doubt radio and television have done and will continue to do.

3] But despite the remarkable uniformity in Australian English, it is possible to identify two well-defined speech types: an educated, cultivated, professional speech and an uncultivated, popular speech. This division of Australian English into cultivated and uncultivated does not correspond to any political boundary or geographical area. It corresponds if at all only to educational levels, and then without real consistency.¹² It seems best, therefore, to refer to ¹³ these two types of speech as Educated Australian, which is most comparable to British English, and to Broad Australian, which is most distinctive and which is most likely to set the speaker apart ¹⁴ from Southern British in vowels, word stress, rhythm, and intonation.

⁵ more or less: almost

⁶ on reflection: after serious thought

⁷ come about: developed

⁸ shifting population: people who move from place to place

⁹ on the move: moving

¹⁰ universal education: education for all the children in the country

¹¹ to exert a levelling effect: to make things very much alike; to eliminate differences

¹² without real consistency: with many exceptions

¹³ refer to: call; name

¹⁴ set the speaker apart: make the speaker seem (in this case, sound) different

4) The variants of the diphthongs [ei], [ou], [ai] and [aU] are among the main characteristics of Broad Australian speech. In the list that follows, four diphthongs are contrasted in Educated Australian and Broad Australian:

EDUCATED AUSTRALIAN		BROAD AUSTRALIAN	
[ei]	[aU]	[ʌI] or [aI]	[æU]
1. say	1. how	say	how
2. take	2. sound	take	sound
3. save	3. house	save	house
[ou]	[aI]	[ʌU]	[ɒI]
1. so	1. cry	so	cry
2. know	2. high	know	high
3. home	3. find	home	find

5) Though they add colour and variety to Australian speech, the differences we have just illustrated never interfere with communication. In fact nothing in the characteristics of any of the standard dialects of English—British, Canadian, American, South African, and others—creates any serious difficulties in understanding. We have, among English-speaking peoples, not flat sameness, but unity in diversity.¹⁵

¹⁵ unity in diversity: sameness or commonness underlying superficial differences

INTENSIVE QUESTIONING: *Yes-No* Questions

Refer to the reading as you choose between *yes* and *no* answers.

1. Is Australian speech remarkably uniform?

Yes, it is.
2. Are there wide variations between Norfolk and Devonshire speech?
3. Do such wide variations exist in Australia?
4. Is Australia a large country?
5. Is Australian English spoken uniformly throughout the continent?
6. Has Australia had a comparatively long history?
7. Does the establishment of local dialects require time?
8. Have the conditions of life encouraged the growth of isolated communities?
9. Are isolated communities likely to develop their own ways of speech?
10. Has there been a large shifting population?
11. Are many people required to move?
12. Is harvesting a trade that moves with the seasons?
13. Has universal education exerted a leveling effect on Australian speech?
14. Will radio and television exert a leveling effect on Australian speech?
15. Are there two well-defined speech types in Australian?
16. Do the two speech types correspond to any geographical division?
17. Do the two speech types correspond consistently to educational levels?
18. Is Educated Australian comparable to British English?
19. Are the variants of the diphthongs among the main characteristics of Broad Australian?
20. Is *say* pronounced differently in Educated and Broad Australian?

INTENSIVE QUESTIONING: *Wh* Questions

Refer to the reading to find the correct answers.

1. What seems surprising in so large a country as Australia?
That Australian English is spoken more or less uniformly.
2. How long a history does Australia have?

3. What does the establishment of local dialects usually require?

4. What kind of communities are likely to develop their own ways of speech?

5. Why are many people required to move?

6. What are two trades that move with the seasons?

7. What has tended to exert a leveling effect on Australian speech?

8. What effect have radio and television had?

9. What two well-defined speech types can be identified?

10. What does this division correspond to?

11. How does it seem best to refer to these two types of speech?

12. Which type is most comparable to British English?

13. Which type is most distinctive?

14. Which type is most likely to set the speaker apart from Southern British?

15. Which variants are among the main characteristics of Broad Australian?

16. What do the differences in pronunciation add to Australian speech?

Understanding Ideas

1. What reasons are given for the uniformity of Australian speech?
2. Discuss the two well-defined speech types in Australian English. What are they called? What does the division between these types correspond to? Which of the two types is most distinctive and which is closer to British English?
3. Ask your teacher or someone in the class that may have heard Australian speech to pronounce the words listed in paragraph 4 under EDUCATED AUSTRALIAN and BROAD AUSTRALIAN. Make a list of other words that have the same diphthongs.

Applying Ideas

1. Have you heard more than one dialect of English? If so, try to describe some of the differences between the dialects you have heard. Dialects can differ in pronunciation, in grammar, and in vocabulary. Try to point out all three kinds of differences.
2. How many local dialects does your own language have? Compare one of these dialects with the dialect you speak. Be sure to point out differences in vocabulary, grammar, and pronunciation.
3. Professor Mitchell points out two conditions that are necessary to the establishment of local dialects. One of these is time and the other is relative isolation. Have both conditions contributed to the growth of dialects in your own language? What do you know about the history of your language and the dialects spoken in isolated areas?

COMPOSITION

A. Arrange the following sentences in a logical order. Do not refer to the reading.

For one thing, Australia has a comparatively short history, whereas the establishment of local dialects usually requires some time. For another, conditions of life on the continent have not encouraged the growth of small, isolated communities likely to develop their own ways of speech. It is easy to understand the uniformity of Australian English.

B. Add at least three more sentences.

1. Once I visited a village which was located _____

2. The people of the village had their own distinct customs.

3. The people of the village spoke a dialect that differs from mine.

4. The people of the village made their living by _____

C. Writing paragraphs: Write a paragraph on “Dialects in My Own Language” by completing the sentences given below.

1. I have heard several different dialects spoken by people from different parts of my country.
2. People from _____ pronounced _____ differently.
3. People from _____ use the word _____ for _____
4. People from _____ have some grammatical differences in their speech, such as _____

GRAMMAR. Questions Meaning “I’m Listening”

Model: S1: I’d like to hear an Australian speak.

S2: Would you? (or) You would?

S1: I’ve read a lot about Australia.

S2: Have you? (or) You have?

S1: My brother doesn’t live in Australia anymore.

S2: Doesn’t he? (or) He doesn’t?

8.1 Add “I’m listening” questions and then practice the following dialogues. Speaker 2 wants to show Speaker 1 that he is listening. He does not expect an answer.

1. S1: Australian speech is remarkably uniform.
S2: _____? (or) _____?
2. S1: In Australia there are none of the wide variations that exist in England.
S2: _____? (or) _____?
3. S1: Australia has a comparatively short history.
S2: _____? (or) _____?
4. S1: Conditions of life haven’t encouraged the development of small communities.
S2: _____? (or) _____?
5. S1: The establishment of a local dialect usually requires some time.
S2: _____? (or) _____?
6. S1: Universal education can level dialect difference.
S2: _____? (or) _____?
7. S1: There has always been a large shifting population in Australia.
S2: _____? (or) _____?
8. S1: There are two well-defined speech types in Australia.
S2: _____? (or) _____?
9. S1: This division doesn’t correspond to geographical area.
S2: _____? (or) _____?
10. S1: The differences never interfere with communication.
S2: _____? (or) _____?
11. S1: The types are called Broad Australian and Educated Australian.
S2: _____? (or) _____?

Model: S1: Broad Australian sounds quite different from British English.

S2: Oh, does it?

S1: Local dialects haven't developed to any extent.

S2: Oh, haven't they?

8.2 Add questions with *oh* + auxiliary, and then practice the following dialogues. Remember that Speaker 2 does not expect an answer.

1. S1: I'd like to go to Australia someday.

S2: _____?

2. S1: I have a brother in Australia.

S2: _____?

3. S1: He lives in Sydney.

S2: _____?

4. S1: The people in Sydney are very friendly.

S2: _____?

5. S1: My brother doesn't have an Australian accent.

S2: _____?

6. S1: He was raised in New York.

S2: _____?

7. S1: He didn't go to Australia until he was twenty-one.

S2: _____?

8. S1: He married an Australian girl.

S2: _____?

9. S1: She has an Australian accent.

S2: _____?

8.3 Supply questions with *oh* + auxiliary.

1. Australia is a continent. _____?

2. Australia has a comparatively short history. _____?

3. Australian speech is remarkably uniform. _____?

4. The establishment of dialects requires time. _____?

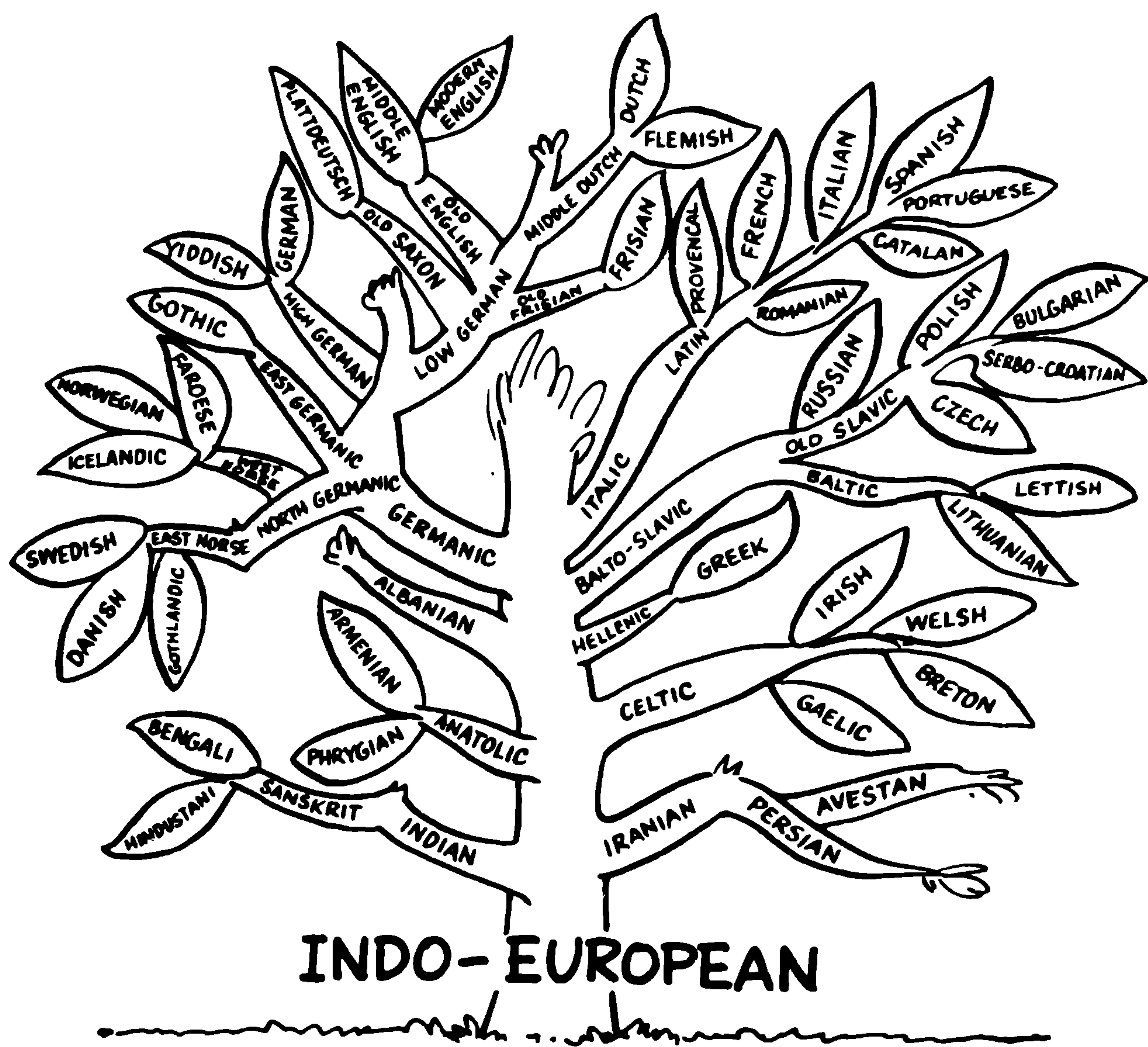
5. Communities haven't developed their own customs. _____?

6. The diphthongs of Educated Australian and Broad Australian aren't the same. _____?

7. The two speech types do not correspond to political boundaries. _____?

Nine: THE HISTORY OF ENGLISH

by HELENE LAIRD In addition to writing four popular children's books, Helene Laird has edited two collections of short stories and has served as an editor of *The Rainbow Dictionary* for children. With her husband Charlton, she has produced a lively and readable book called *The Tree of Language*, which introduces young readers to the origins of English speech and writing. In the essay that follows, Mrs. Laird describes the development of English from an isolated Germanic dialect to an important international language.



1) For hundreds of years English was spoken only by the inhabitants of England. After the discovery of the New World, however, English gradually spread to North America, to Australia and New Zealand, to Africa and parts of Asia. Today around 230 million people speak English as a first language, and nearly 100 million more speak it as a second or auxiliary language.

2) Where did this language that has spread so widely begin? Scholars have concluded that there was an early language, called Indo-European, which is the ancestor of present-day English and most of the languages of Europe. We do not know much about the people who spoke this language, but it seems likely ¹ that they may have lived in east central Europe. At any rate, they migrated. Some went east and settled in Iran and India. Some went south to Greece and Italy. Some went west and came to the west coast of Europe.

CELTIC AND LATIN

3) One tribe of Indo-Europeans, the Celts, were the earliest known inhabitants of the island that is now called Britain. These ancestors of the modern Scots, Welsh, and Irish controlled the island without interruption until the invasion of the Romans, who were also of Indo-European descent. When the Romans became the masters of Britain A.D. 43,² they built towns and roads, some of which are still being used. During the Roman occupation, Latin—which, like Celtic, is a descendant of Indo-European—was the official language throughout most of the island.

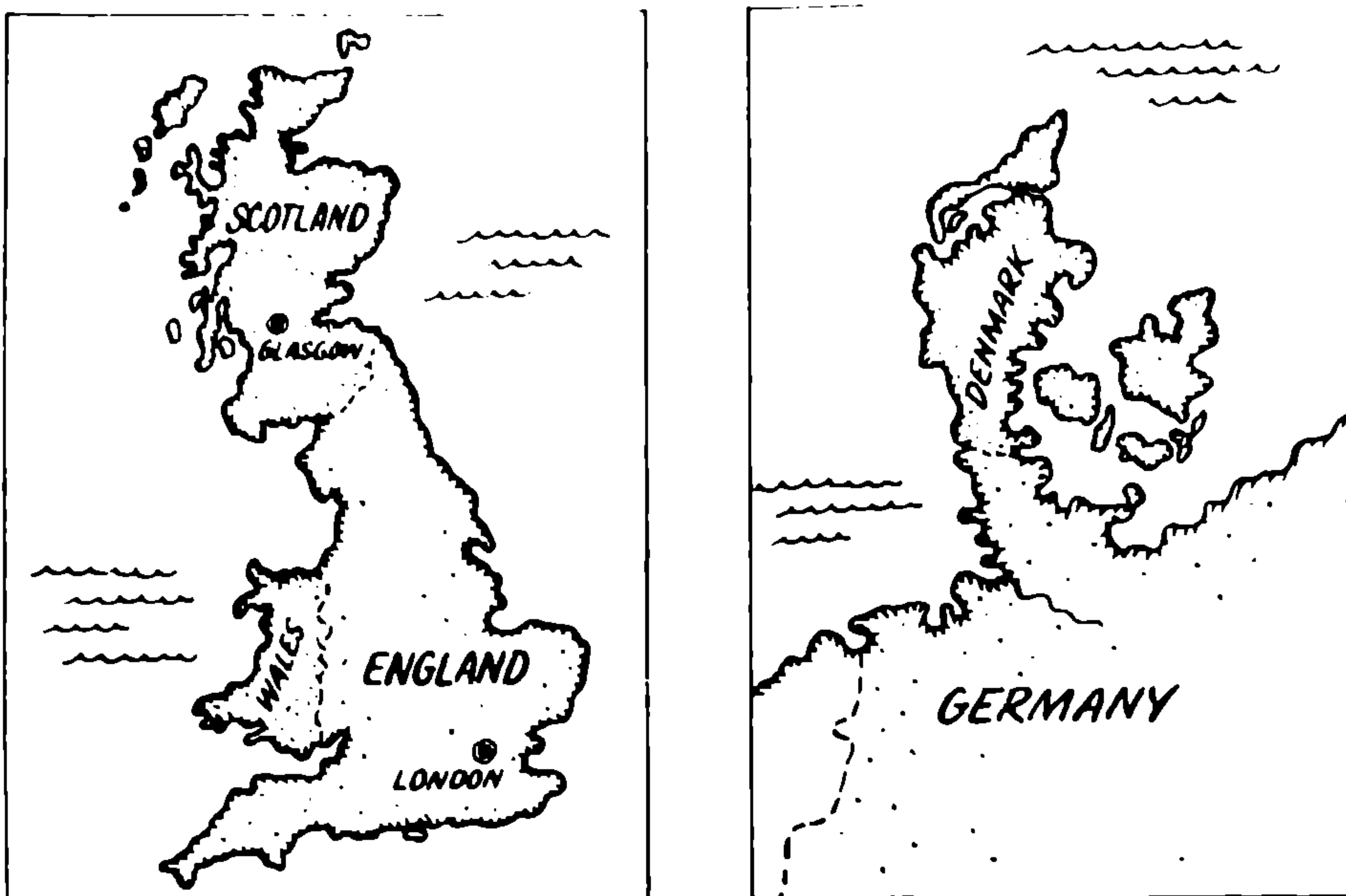
GERMANIC

4) About the beginning of the fifth century the Romans were having trouble almost everywhere in their vast empire. Eventually they lost control of the island of Britain, which soon became the target of a new invasion. The next invaders, who came from what is now Denmark and northern Germany, were the Angles, the Saxons, and the Jutes. All of them spoke closely related dialects of Germanic. Unlike the Romans, these people stayed. They were farmers when they were not at war, and they settled down and took over ³ all of the good farming country. The Celts were forced to move to the north and west, to what is now Scotland, Wales, and Ireland. In the part of Britain that is now England, the dialects that these Germanic tribes spoke,

¹ seems likely: is very possible

² A.D. 43: A.D., meaning “in the year of (our) Lord,” is sometimes used, for clarity, before a figure to indicate the number of a year in the Christian Era. B.C., meaning “before Christ,” is used after a figure to indicate the number of years before the beginning of the Christian Era

³ took over: occupied



together called Anglo-Saxon or Old English, became the common speech. English had at last come to England.

SCANDINAVIAN

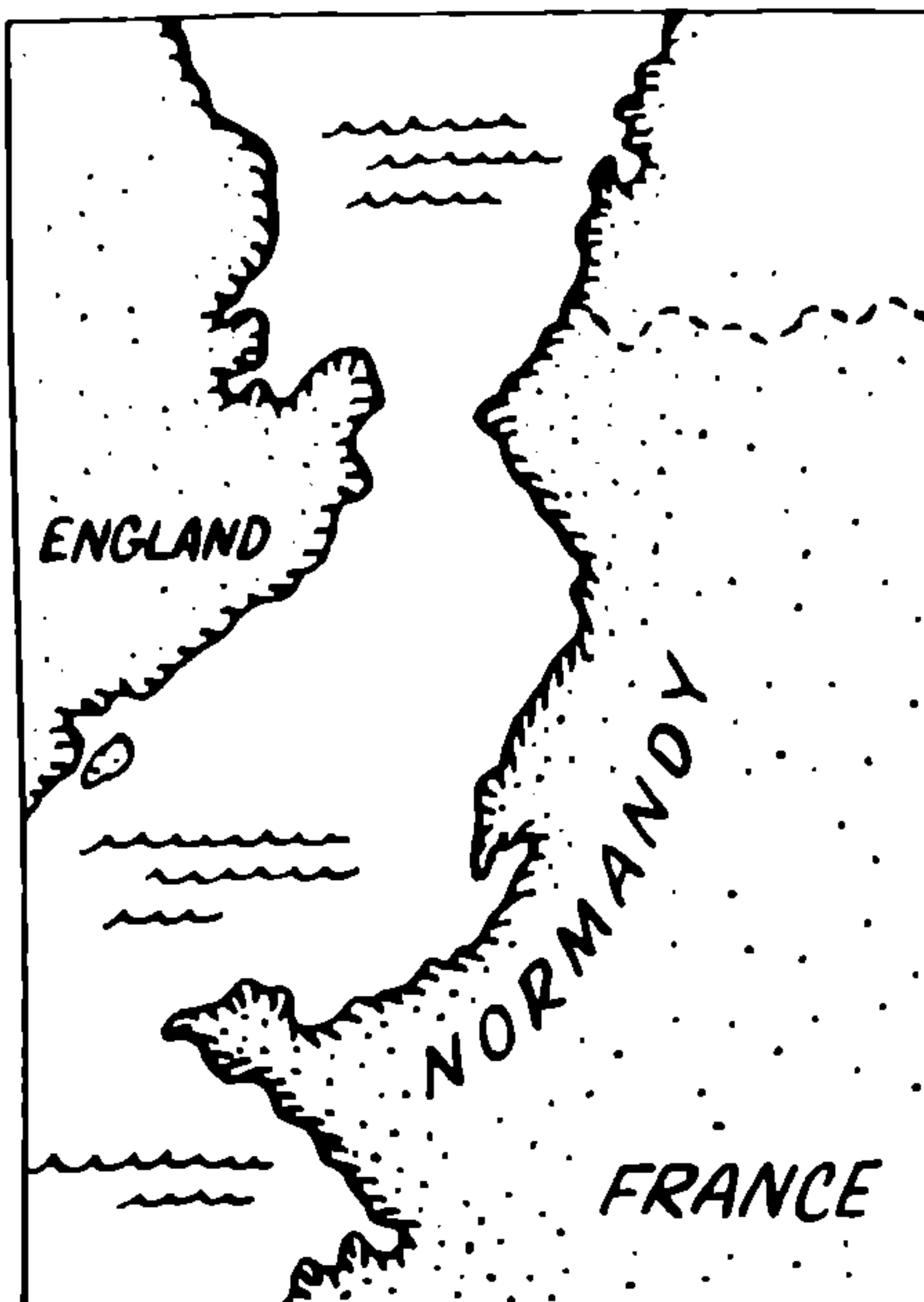
5) The next invasion of Britain came from an Indo-European people who lived in northern Europe. The Danes, or Vikings as they were sometimes called, for a long time had been raiding along the coasts of England. After the Anglo-Saxons had been in England for a while, the Danes came again, and this time they decided to stay. There was fighting, of course, and in the fighting the Danes burned and ruined the important towns and also the monasteries, the religious houses run by monks, which had been the centers of education. But finally in King Alfred's time, A.D. 878, a treaty was drawn up,⁴ giving the Danes a section of England called the Danelaw, and they became Englishmen too. Gradually words from their language were added to the English language.

NORMAN-FRENCH

6) Surprisingly enough, although English was well developed by the eleventh century, for the next 300 years it was not the official language in England. The Danes had spread all along the coasts of Europe, as well as ⁵ to England. Some of them had settled in part of France, and by the eleventh century they had been there long enough

⁴ drawn up: written

⁵ as well as: and; in addition to



to be called Normans (a French form of “Norsemen”; both words mean “Northmen”) and to have adopted French as their own language. In 1066 the Normans conquered England. So now another people, also speaking an Indo-European language, had come to settle.

7] For three hundred years the official languages of England—those used in business, the church, the government—were French and Latin, and very little that was considered important was done in English. Little, that is, except talking. Because the ordinary people of England kept right on speaking ⁶ English for three centuries, their language lived on.⁷

8] After a time, the Normans mixed with the Anglo-Saxons and the Danes, and eventually they were all Englishmen. Meanwhile English replaced French as the common written language. Important writers such as Geoffrey Chaucer (1340?–1400) began to appear, but the Middle English in which they spoke and wrote differed considerably in grammar and pronunciation from the language of King Alfred. It also differed greatly in vocabulary. Whereas the vocabulary of Old English was primarily Germanic, the vocabulary of Middle English contained over 10,000 French words. In fact, English has borrowed more words from French than from any other language.

⁶ kept right on speaking: continued to speak.

⁷ lived on: survived; continued to live

9] And English went on changing. Shakespeare (who died in 1616) wrote in Modern English and would have found the language of Chaucer's *Canterbury Tales* very strange. And though speakers of contemporary English can read Shakespeare with a little help, his language shows obvious differences in details of pronunciation, grammar, and vocabulary.

10] One example will be enough to show how much English has changed in its grammar and vocabulary from the tenth century to the present. The pronunciation changed greatly, too, but unfortunately the sounds cannot be shown in the conventional spellings that we must use.

Old English, 995: Soðlice ða se Hælend geseh ða menigu, he astah on ðone munt; and ða he sæt, ða genealæhton his leorning-cnihtas to him.

Middle English, 1389: Jhesu forsothe, seynge cumpanyes, wente vp in to an hill; and when he hadde sete, his disciplis camen nize to hym.

Early Modern English, 1611: And seeing the multitudes, he went up into a mountaine: and when he was set, his disciples came unto him.

Contemporary English: Seeing the crowds, he went up on the mountain, and when he sat down his disciples came to him.

11] Constantly changing its vocabulary and its constructions as the requirements of our complex modern life demand, constantly borrowing and adapting, English keeps its energy, flexibility, and adaptability as it continues to spread around the world.

INTENSIVE QUESTIONING: *Yes-No* Questions

Refer to the reading as you choose between *yes* and *no* answers.

1. For hundreds of years, was English spoken only by the English?

Yes, it was.
2. Did English gradually spread to other continents?
3. Has it become a second language in many parts of the world?
4. Is Indo-European the ancestor of English?
5. Is Indo-European the ancestor of all the languages in Europe?
6. Did some speakers of Indo-European migrate to Iran and India?
7. Were the Celts Indo-European?
8. Did the Romans become masters of Britain in 43 B.C.?
9. Did the Romans build towns and roads in Britain?
10. Was Celtic the official language during the Roman occupation?
11. Did the Romans eventually lose control of the island of Britain?
12. Were the next invaders from Spain?
13. Were the Celts forced to move to Scotland and Wales?
14. Had English at last come to England?
15. Were the next invaders the Danes?
16. Did the Danes decide to stay in England?
17. Were words from their language gradually added to English?
18. Had some of the Danes settled in France?
19. Is “Norman” related to “Northmen”?
20. Did the Normans adopt Latin as their language?
21. Did the Normans conquer England?
22. Did the Normans settle in England?
23. Was English the official language after 1066?
24. Was English the language of the government?

INTENSIVE QUESTIONING: *Wh* Questions

Refer to the reading to find the correct answers.

1. For how long was English spoken only by the inhabitants of England?
For hundreds of years English was spoken only by the inhabitants of England.
2. When did English begin to spread around the world?

3. Where did English gradually spread to?

4. How many people speak English as a first language?

5. How many people speak English as a second language?

6. What language is the ancestor of present-day English?

7. How much do we know about the people who spoke Indo-European?

8. Where did the people who spoke Indo-European live?

9. What are some of the places the Indo-Europeans migrated to?

10. Who were the earliest known inhabitants of Britain?

11. When did the Romans become masters of Britain?

12. What did they build in Britain?

13. What was the official language during the Roman occupation?

14. What language are Celtic and Latin descended from?

15. Where were the Romans having trouble?

16. Where did the next invaders of Britain come from?

Understanding Ideas

1. Find the Germanic, Italic, and Celtic branches on the Indo-European “tree” on page 86. Name three Germanic languages, three Italic languages, and three Celtic languages.
2. There were four invasions of the island of Britain after the Celts settled there. Who made the invasions? What languages did they speak?
3. What are the three periods in the history of the English language? What period does King Alfred belong to? Chaucer? Shakespeare?

Applying Ideas

1. English has borrowed words from many languages. In fact, some scholars estimate that over 50 percent of the English vocabulary is borrowed. What words has your language borrowed from other languages? Has it borrowed any words from English? If so, what are they?
2. All languages change in time. Make a list of words in your language that are “new words.” Make another list of “old words”—words that you might hear, but that you would recognize as old-fashioned.
3. Try to find out some important facts in the history of your own language. What languages is it related to? When was it first written down? Has it been influenced by other languages with which it has been in contact?

COMPOSITION

A. Arrange the following sentences in a logical order. Do not refer to the reading.

Unlike the Romans, these people settled down and took over all of the good farming country. The new invaders were speakers of closely related Germanic dialects. Eventually the Celts were forced to move to the north and west, to what is now Scotland, Wales, and Ireland.

B. Add at least three sentences after the topic sentence.

1. The Germanic branch of Indo-European is divided into three main parts. (Refer to the chart on page 86.)

2. There are three periods in the history of the English language.

3. In historical times, three other languages besides English have been spoken on the island of Britain.

4. In 1066 the Normans conquered England, and they brought their language with them.

5. Old English was very different from contemporary English. (Use the examples in paragraph 10.)

C. Writing paragraphs

1. Write a paragraph beginning with the sentence: *Four languages were spoken in Britain before the time of Shakespeare.*

2. Write a paragraph beginning with the sentence: *French has had the most important influence on the English vocabulary.*

3. Write a paragraph beginning with the sentences: *English is not only a great borrower. It is a great lender.* Use for examples the English words that your language has borrowed.

4. Notice that paragraphs 1, 2, and 3 can be combined into a unified composition. What order should the paragraphs be in?

GRAMMAR. Contradiction

Model: S1: The Angles weren't a Germanic tribe.

S2: The Angles **were** a Germanic tribe.

S1: We know a lot about the people who spoke Indo-European.

S2: We **don't** know a lot about the people who spoke it.

S1: Latin isn't an Indo-European language.

S2: Latin **is** an Indo-European language.

9.1 Practice the following dialogues in which Speaker 2 contradicts Speaker 1. The heavy stress marked with boldface type is an essential part of the grammar of the sentence.

1. S1: English wasn't named after the Angles.

S2: English **was** named after the Angles.

2. S1: The Angles came to Britain from Italy.

S2: The Angles **didn't** come to Britain from Italy. They came from northern Europe.

3. S1: English spread immediately to many parts of the world.

S2: English did **not** spread immediately. For hundreds of years it was spoken only by the inhabitants of England.

4. S1: English is spoken as a first language in South America.

S2: English is **not** spoken as a first language there. Spanish and Portuguese are the main languages. But many South Americans use English as a second language.

5. S1: The Celts aren't the ancestors of the modern Welsh.

S2: They **are** the ancestors of the Welsh. They are also the ancestors of the Scots and the Irish.

6. S1: The Romans stayed in Britain permanently.

S2: The Romans did **not** stay in Britain permanently. They left at the beginning of the fifth century

7. S1: The Angles didn't stay in England.

S2: They **did** stay in England. England was named after the Angles.

8. S1: The Normans were originally from France.

S2: They were **not** originally from France. They were Northmen or Danes.

9. S1: The Normans remained apart from the Anglo-Saxons.

S2: The Normans did **not** remain apart from the Anglo-Saxons. They eventually mixed with them.

Review of Verb Constructions

Model:	Modal	Have + past participle	Be + present participle	Verb
	(could)	(have)	(be)	(speak)
1.	could			speak
2.		have		spoken
3.			are	speaking
4.	could	have		spoken
5.	could		be	speaking
6.		have	been	speaking
7.	could	have	been	speaking

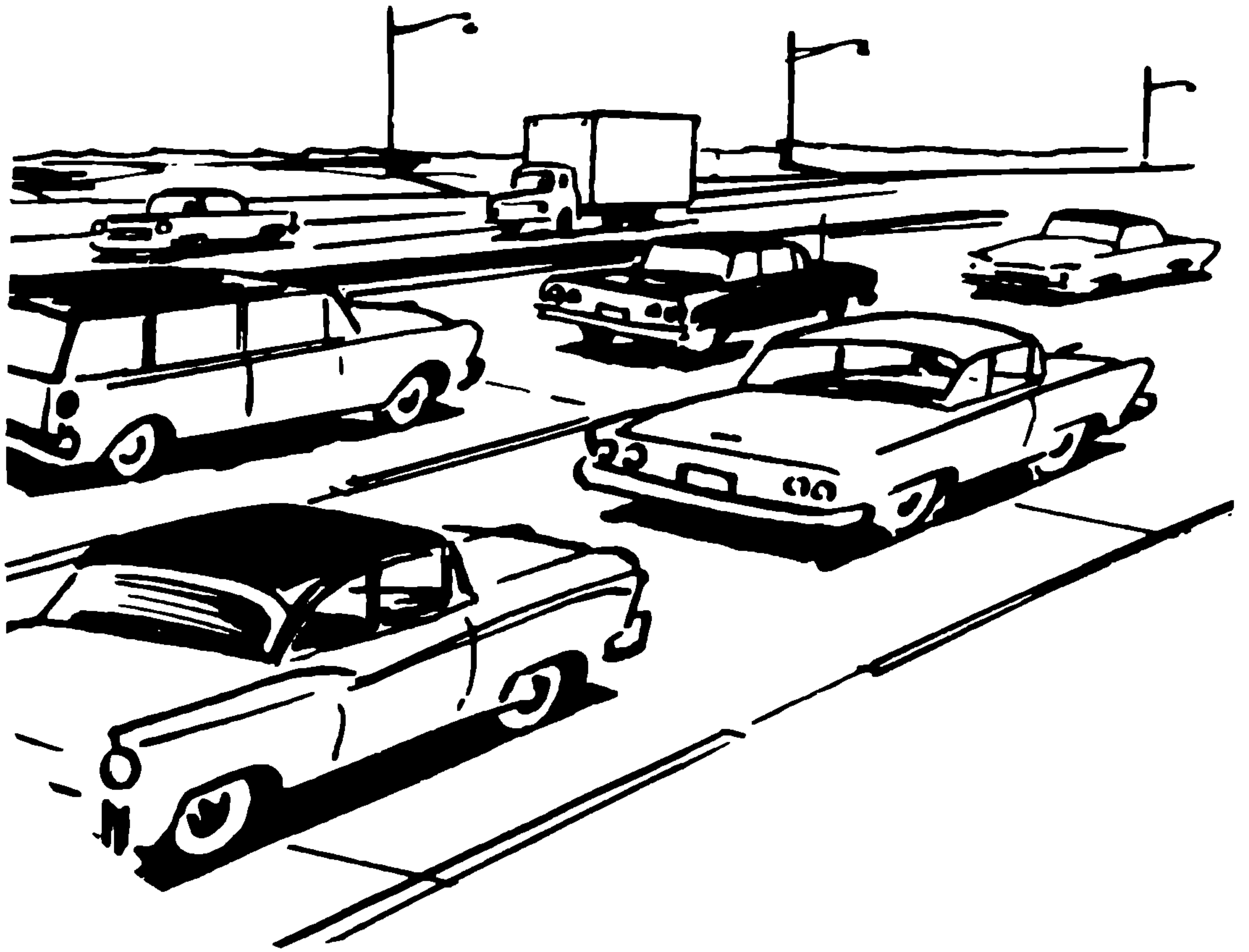
9.2 Make sentences with all seven verb constructions in the model.

1. he could have be study French

2. they might have be ask about the history of English

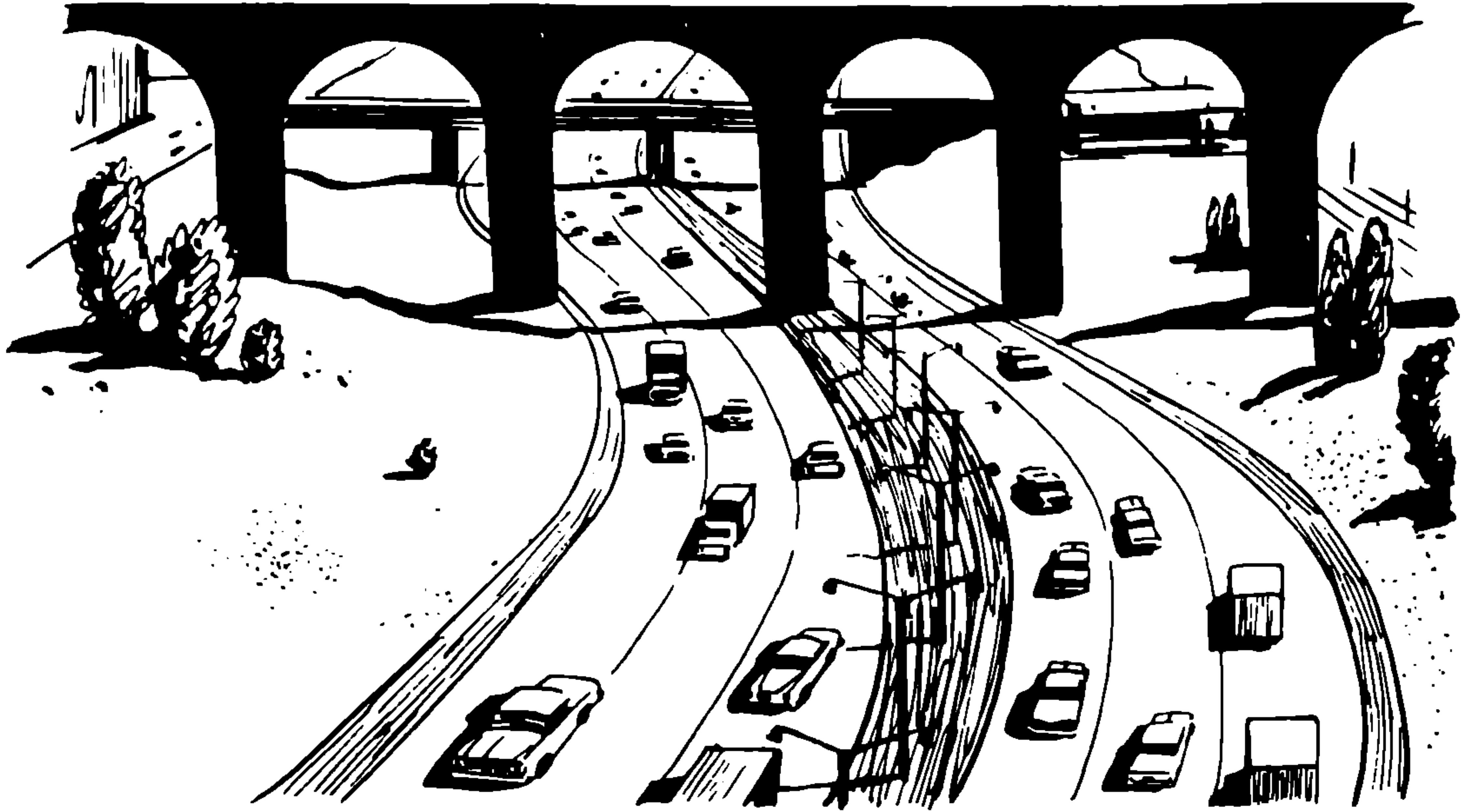
3. they must have be use English as an official language

Unit Three: SOCIETIES IN CHANGE



Ten: THE AMERICAN AND THE AUTOMOBILE

by **FREDERICK LEWIS ALLEN** Mr. Allen was for many years editor of *Harper's Magazine*, one of the oldest and most influential American journals. He is also an author and social historian; his studies of recent American history, *Only Yesterday*, *Since Yesterday*, and *The Big Change*, provide exceptionally clear insights into recent American life.



A crowded modern highway.

1] The change in the status of the automobile from an expensive luxury for the few to a necessity for the many has transformed American communities and American living habits over the past sixty years. The Automobile Age did not come abruptly, for it could not. The Automobile Age depended on three things. First, a reliable and not too expensive car. Second, a system of good roads. And third, garages and gasoline stations in great numbers. By the nineteen-twenties (1920s) most of these conditions had been met, and all three have been rapidly expanding and improving each year since.

2] The impact of the automobile on American life has been tremendous. American automobile manufacturers now sell 8 million new automobiles each year, with larger sales in prospect.¹ No such startling change in the habits of a people as the automobile has brought could take place² without having far-reaching effects. Let us glance at³ a few of them.

¹ in prospect: foreseen; expected

² take place: happen

³ glance at: take a quick look at; quickly examine

3] The automobile has developed the motorized suburb. City suburbs, previously accessible by railroad, were limited in size because of the difficulty of reaching the railroad station from any place more than a mile away. Now, with the automobile, suburban families who live long distances from the station can reach it easily. As a result, suburban areas have grown with remarkable speed, and large housing tracts ⁴ can be found around the edge of every American city.

4] In suburbs which had previously been inaccessible by railroad the same rapid growth has taken place. Many wage earners drive all the way from their country homes to their places of work in the cities. The number of Americans whose treasure and whose heart ⁵ are 20 miles apart have vastly increased.

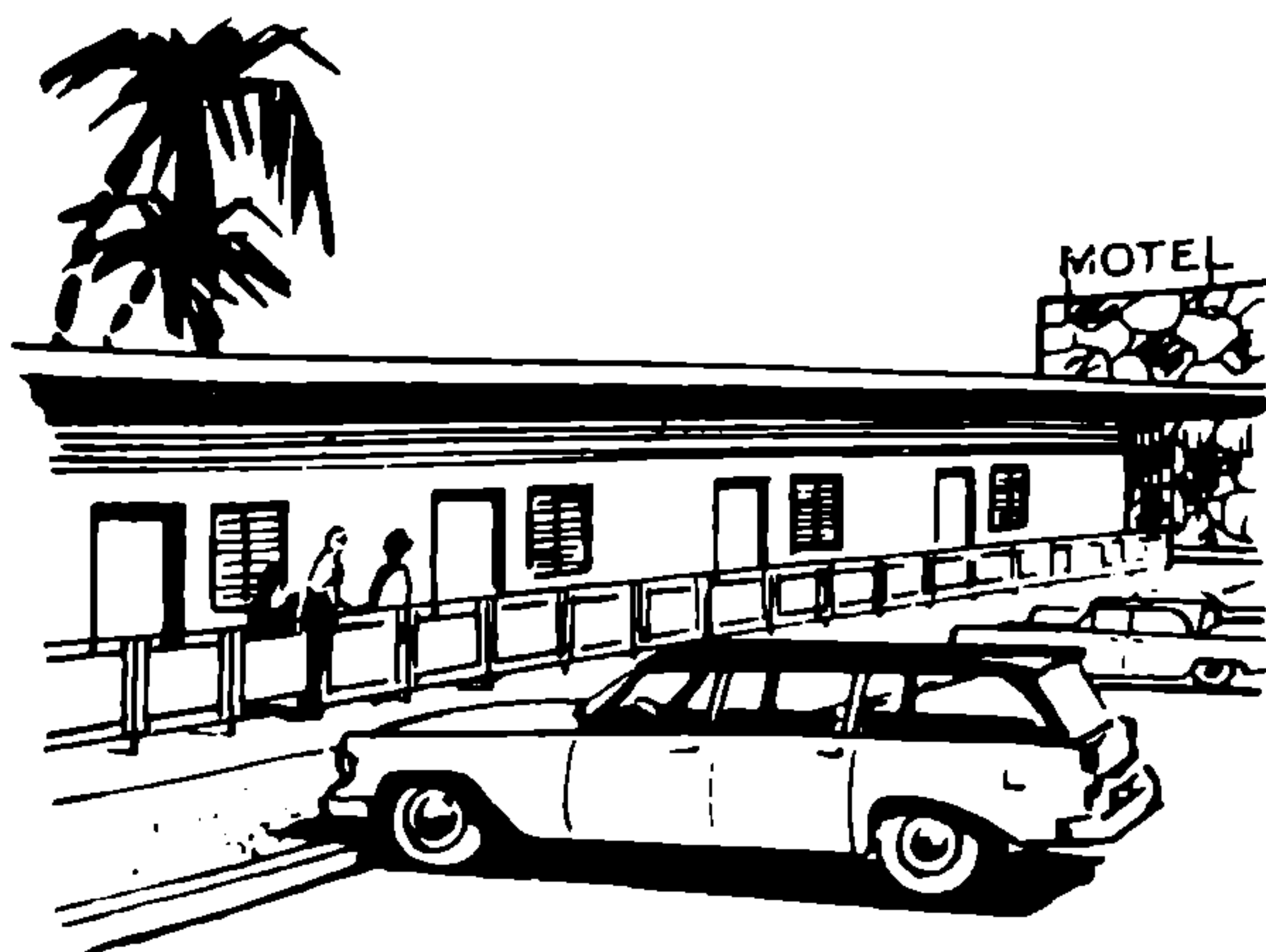
5] The coming of the automobile also had the effect of moving business from the center of the city to the outskirts. The hotel on Main Street ⁶ in the city, for example, that had formerly been the one and only place for travelers to stay, lost business to the less expensive tourist camp ⁷ outside the city on the highway. In a short time the

⁴ housing tracts: areas where many houses, often of similar designs, are built

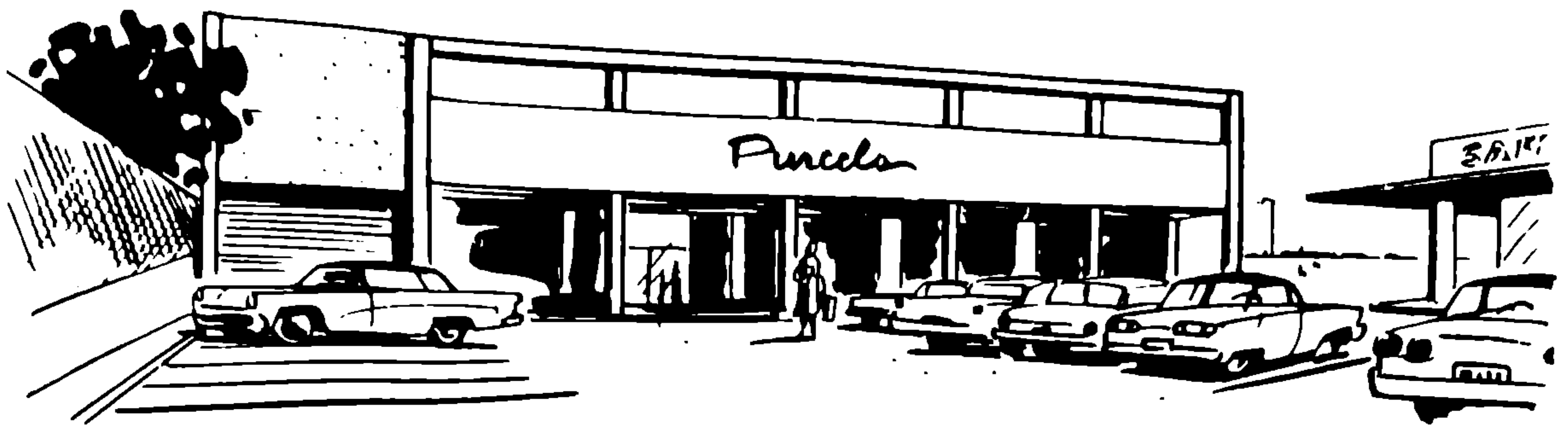
⁵ whose treasure and whose heart: whose place to work and whose place to live

⁶ Main Street: In the United States the principal business street of a city is often called Main Street.

⁷ tourist camp: group of simply built houses where tourists can stay for modest prices or where they can put up tents



Motel.



Shopping center with parking lot.

crude tourist camp was transformed into a roadside hotel, or “motel” (a combination of “motor” and “hotel”), which offered the traveler quiet, privacy, convenience, and even luxury. The stores along Main Street in the heart of town lost business to the new stores at the edge of the city, which had large parking lots ⁸ and were close to the suburbs. City department stores, painfully aware of ⁹ the business they were losing, opened suburban branch stores. Next came the development of huge shopping centers, built at the outskirts of the city or in the suburbs where land was cheaper and there was plenty of parking space.

6) The automobile also changed the pattern of family vacations. The big summer hotels, where American families used to spend their vacations, lost business too. The automobile made families mobile. With an automobile, people could travel from motel to motel or buy their own summer cottages. In the old and famous vacation resorts the same pattern of change was repeated time after time.¹⁰ The big hotel lost money and was torn down, while the number of privately owned cottages in the neighborhood doubled, tripled, and quadrupled. Meanwhile the Friday afternoon traffic ¹¹ out of the cities toward the beaches, the mountains, and public parks grew denser and denser.

7) The dense traffic of the automobile brought a parking problem to the cities. At first drivers parked at the sides of the streets, and then they needed a parking lot; soon they needed a larger parking lot, and

⁸ parking lots: open grounds, usually paved with asphalt or concrete, where cars can be parked ⁹ painfully aware of: knowing and worried about

¹⁰ time after time: again and again; many times

¹¹ Friday afternoon traffic: heavy traffic of automobiles carrying people away for the weekend

in due course ¹² a still bigger one—and the larger the parking lots grew, the more people wanted to use them. New boulevards, widened roads, and highways helped to relieve the bottlenecks ¹³ which slowed traffic into the cities—and invited more and more cars to enter them. In every American city today the question “Where do I park?” is more annoying and persistent than ever before in the history of the automobile.



A street scene in 1920.



A street scene today.

8] The Automobile Age has not only affected the man in the big cities. It has also affected the American farmer. Along with ¹⁴ the invention of the telephone and the radio, the automobile ended his isolation. By the nineteen-twenties the purchase of a car was likely to be ¹⁵ the most important thing a farmer did. At that time one could still find men and women who had never ventured far from their home, but their number was dwindling fast and they are practically nonexistent today. Families who had always stayed at home could now drive anywhere they wished, see and do new things, meet new people, and find out what the rest of their country was like. Even their daily radius of activity lengthened startlingly with the possession of a car. By the nineteen-forties it was a matter of routine ¹⁶ for a rural family to drive 10 or 15 miles to shop, 20 or 30 miles to see a movie, 50 miles or more to visit a doctor or a dentist.

¹² in due course: eventually; as a natural consequence

¹³ to relieve the bottlenecks: to do away with the narrow places

¹⁴ Along with: together with

¹⁵ was likely to be: was very often; probably

¹⁶ a matter of routine: an everyday matter; something happening regularly

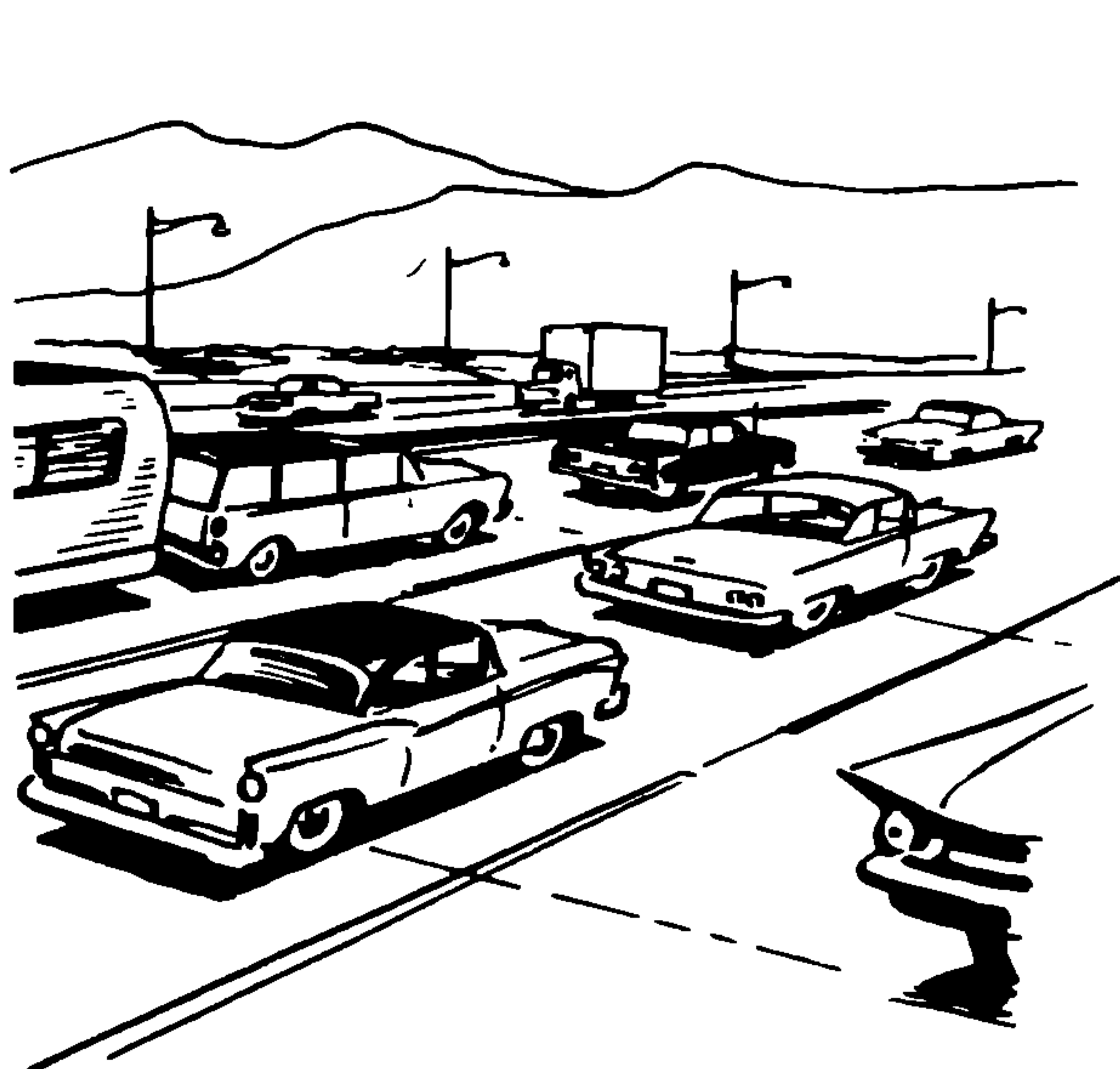
9] Whether they live in the country or the city, Americans are usually on the move.¹⁷ Always a highly mobile people by comparison with the peoples of Europe and Asia, Americans are following jobs and businesses more readily than ever before, moving by automobile—and later by trailer¹⁸—wherever there might be a call for construction workers, fruit pickers, airplane mechanics, salesmen, engineers, and so on. Some people are worried about what has seemed to be a growing American restlessness, but the automobile suits the American temperament. Americans have always been a venturesome, mobile, pioneering people. They like to think that a rolling stone will gather experience, adventure, and—with luck—new and better opportunities.

¹⁷ on the move: moving; going somewhere

¹⁸ trailer: small house on wheels usually made of light metal and pulled by an automobile



**Farmhouse with a car
in the yard.**



**Autos and trailers on
a crowded highway.**

INTENSIVE QUESTIONING: *Yes-No* Questions

Refer to the reading as you choose between *yes* and *no* answers.

- | | |
|---|--------------|
| 1. Has the automobile changed in status? | Yes, it has. |
| 2. Was it once an expensive luxury for the few? | _____ |
| 3. Is it now a necessity for many Americans? | _____ |
| 4. Has this change transformed American living habits? | _____ |
| 5. Did the change come abruptly? | _____ |
| 6. Did the Automobile Age depend on two things? | _____ |
| 7. Did it depend on good roads? | _____ |
| 8. Did it depend on garages and gasoline stations? | _____ |
| 9. Were these conditions met by 1900? | _____ |
| 10. Have they been improving each year since? | _____ |
| 11. Has the automobile had an impact on American life? | _____ |
| 12. Are automobile sales decreasing? | _____ |
| 13. Has the automobile had far-reaching effects? | _____ |
| 14. Have suburbs grown around the cities? | _____ |
| 15. Do suburban families need to live close to railroad stations? | _____ |
| 16. Can large housing tracts be found around the edge of every American city? | _____ |
| 17. Do many Americans drive long distances to work? | _____ |
| 18. Are their homes and places of work close to each other? | _____ |
| 19. Are their treasures and their hearts in the same place? | _____ |
| 20. Has business moved to the center of the city? | _____ |
| 21. Has the hotel on Main Street lost business? | _____ |
| 22. Is a motel the same as a hotel? | _____ |
| 23. Do new stores at the edge of the city have parking lots? | _____ |
| 24. Did department stores open suburban branches? | _____ |
| 25. Were shopping centers built at the outskirts of the city? | _____ |

INTENSIVE QUESTIONING: *Wh* Questions

Refer to the reading to find the correct answers.

1. How has the automobile changed in status?
It has changed from an expensive luxury to a necessity.
2. Over what period has this change taken place?

3. What status did the automobile use to have?

4. What status does the automobile now have?

5. What three things did the change depend on?

6. When had most of these conditions been met?

7. What has the automobile brought a startling change in?

8. What kind of suburb has the automobile developed?

9. Why were city suburbs previously limited in size?

10. How far from the station can families with automobiles live?

11. How fast have suburban areas grown?

12. Where can large housing tracts be found?

13. What has happened to suburbs without railroads?

14. How far do many wage earners drive?

15. What did the hotel on Main Street lose trade to?

16. What was the tourist camp transformed into?

17. How was the word *motel* formed?

Understanding Ideas

- 1. What is a suburb? What effect did the automobile have on city suburbs?
- 2. What effect did the automobile have on hotels? on stores in the heart of town?
- 3. In what ways are Americans a mobile people? How does this mobility suit their temperament?

Applying Ideas

- 1. What different means of transportation are used in your country? Which means is used most widely?
- 2. What means of transportation has affected or is affecting life in your country? What are the effects? (You might discuss transportation by water, by air, or by land.)
- 3. Are your large cities all centralized, or are there any suburbs located on the outskirts? If there are suburbs, how do the people who live in them travel back and forth from the center of the city?

COMPOSITION

Organization

Notice that Allen uses a *cause and effect* organization in his essay. The following outline will show the careful plan:

- 1. Central thought: paragraphs 1 and 2. In these paragraphs Allen calls attention to the increase in the number of automobiles (the cause) and says that this increase has brought about a change in living habits (the effect).
- 2. The effect: one effect (paragraph 3) is the development of the motorized suburb. List in complete sentences the other effects that the automobile has had on American life.

(moving business) _____
(family vacations) _____
(parking problems) _____
(American farmers) _____
(mobility) _____

Longer Composition (optional)

Write a composition of three paragraphs with a cause and effect organization. Choose one of the following topics:

1. The Effect of (the Telephone, etc.) on Our Family
2. The Effect of (the New Highway, etc.) on Our (City, etc.)
3. The Effect of (Radio, Television, etc.) on Our Country

Sentence Connectors: *however* and *therefore*

A. *However* has a meaning similar to that of *but*. *Therefore* has a meaning similar to that of *so*. Decide what the relationship should be between the two sentences, and supply the connector that establishes that relationship.

1. The automobile has changed American living habits; _____, the change did not come about abruptly.
2. Our highways are much better than they used to be; _____, they still are in need of improvement.
3. Every year there are more new cars in our city; _____ we need to provide more parking spaces.
4. City department stores are losing business; _____ some of them have opened suburban branches.
5. The big summer hotels have lost business; _____, new motels are being built all the time.

B. Combine the following sentences with *therefore* or *however*. Follow the punctuation used in A.

1. Mr. Jones lives 20 miles from the center of the city. He spends a lot of time commuting.
2. In the center of town all the streets have parking meters. It is necessary to have a lot of small change if you go downtown to shop.
3. We would like to have a new car. We can't afford to buy one just now.
4. The old bridge was a bottleneck that slowed traffic during the rush hours. The city decided to build a new one that was wider.

C. Write two sentences of your own and connect them with *however*. Write two more sentences and connect them with *therefore*.

GRAMMAR. Request Clauses after Verbs

Model: Our teacher suggested it.
Ken should read more about motorized suburbs.
. . . that Ken should read more about motorized suburbs.
Our teacher suggested that Ken read more about motorized suburbs.

10.1 Follow the model as you construct request clauses after verbs.

1. We recommend it.
Kathy should make a report on the impact of the automobile.
. . . that _____

2. We asked it.
Someone should tell us about the change in American living habits.
. . . that _____

3. The customers demanded it.
The store should provide more parking space.
. . . that _____

4. My wife prefers it.
We should stay in a motel when we travel by car.
. . . that _____

5. Let's propose it.
Our class should visit the new shopping center.
. . . that _____

6. I urged it.
My friend should avoid the heavy traffic by leaving early.
. . . that _____

7. Our teacher required it.
Everyone should find out about the development of super-highways.
. . . that _____

Negated Request Clauses after Verbs

Model: The company suggested it.

Its employees should not live too far from the factory.

. . . that its employees should not live too far from the factory.

The company suggested that its employees not live too far from the factory.

10.2 Follow the model as you construct negated request clauses after verbs.

1. The customers demanded it.

The store should not close before 9:00 P.M.

. . . that _____

2. The employees recommended it.

The store should not stay open on Sundays.

. . . that _____

3. The manager insisted on it.

His employees should not arrive late for work.

. . . that _____

4. The motel owner asked it.

Taxes should not be raised.

. . . that _____

5. The citizens demanded it.

The new highway should not be built through the park.

. . . that _____

6. The commuters urged it.

The city should not lower the speed limit.

. . . that _____

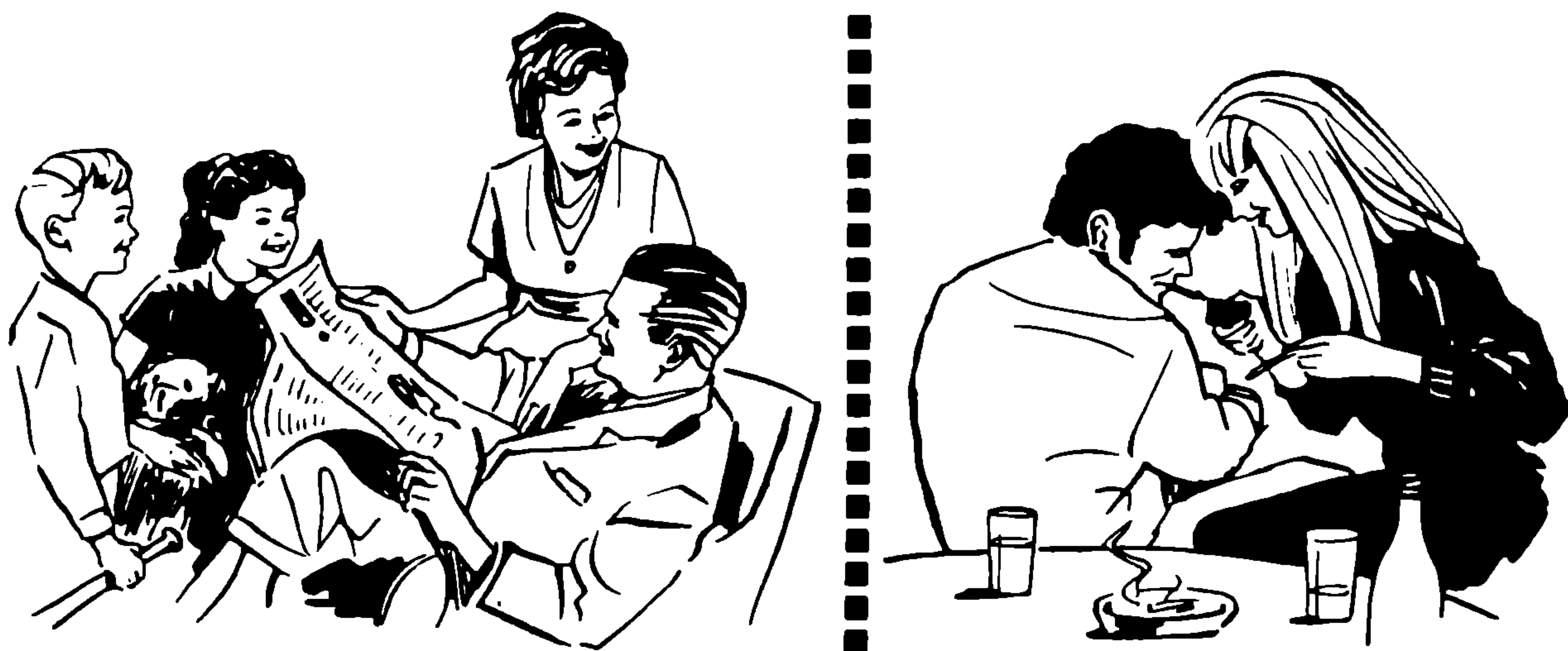
7. The law required it.

Licenses should not be issued without an eye test.

. . . that _____

Eleven: THE CHANGING AMERICAN FAMILY

by **MARGARET MEAD** Dr. Mead, who is an anthropologist, is best known for her books on the ethnology of Pacific peoples, but she has also had a good deal to say about American life. Though her analyses are often controversial and there are many students of culture who do not agree with them, Dr. Mead is universally acknowledged as a lively and provocative writer.



**A young American family with responsibilities
versus the irresponsible "beat" life.**

1] Americans today are marrying at an earlier age than their parents and grandparents did. And these early marriages are placing new responsibilities on young people, especially on boys. By the time young men reach high school, they are expected to decide on their careers, to work hard to prepare for them, and to begin to spend enough time with girls to assure an early marriage.

2] In the past, for those who were to become the leaders of the next generation, this period of their lives was a time in which young men tested themselves and their abilities outside the home among their equals in a male world. Now they are expected to drive carefully, pay close attention to ¹ their work, marry young, have children at once, and support their families however they can while going to school. A great many of our future doctors and lawyers, engineers and statesmen, are today holding down ² all-day jobs, trying to do passing

¹ pay close attention to: watch closely; be careful with

² holding down: trying to keep; working at

college work, and helping their wives at night and on weekends in the care of two or three children.

3) In this rush toward early domestic responsibility that seems to characterize American family life today, many valuable things have been sacrificed. Friendship and competition with other young men, on which male minds have been fed³ for generations, are pushed aside or obtained at the expense of the young husband's time at home. The image of suitable careers for young men is being broken sharply in half—they must choose either of two alternatives: early marriage, fatherhood, and hard work at office and home; or irresponsibility, a beard, and the “beat” crowd.⁴ There is no room, it sometimes seems, for something between the two extremes. There is no longer much chance for what were once thought of and accepted as youthful pranks,⁵ or for youthful experimentation with interesting, if extreme, ideas about politics, art, or love.

4) On the other hand, this lowering of the age of responsibility has not been all for the bad.⁶ It is hard on the young, hard on their parents, and hard on those aspects of our national and international life that call for new ideas and new leadership from young adults. But the homes which these young people are building are good homes. In all the history of civilization, never have fathers taken such good care of their children as in the United States today. Nor have mothers had so much companionship from their husbands. The children born so close together to these young parents have a warm and valuable family life. A father is no longer the distant head of household and absent breadwinner.⁷ A brake is put on divorce by the meaning and value placed on this shared domesticity.⁸

³ on which male minds have been fed: which have been held up as important to boys growing to manhood

⁴ a beard, and the “beat” crowd: a beard (hair on the chin), often characteristic of the beatnik (a young man who dresses and behaves in extreme ways as a protest against society), and a group of such beatniks

⁵ youthful pranks: jokes and tricks played by young people

⁶ all for the bad: all bad

⁷ absent breadwinner: person working away from his home in order to support his family

⁸ shared domesticity: homelife maintained by both the husband and the wife

5] The home in which this new kind of young American lives is both a beloved shelter and a heavy weight. It is designed to make family living pleasant and easy. There are appliances in the kitchen—stoves, refrigerators, dishwashers, irons, and other utensils—to make housework easy. There are good pictures on the walls, books to read in the bookcases, a pile of records and a record player, radios, television—all these for the family to enjoy. So is the automobile at the door, a necessity for every American family. These are not symbols of wealth and success, or of social class, but felt to be minimum needs for a good family life.

6] The work that goes into the making of such a home, however, is tremendous. Neither the home nor the things in it are fully paid for. The young wife often works at the beginning of her marriage so that they can get started on the payment of their debts. She may also have to get a job later on as well, so that she and her husband can keep up the payments ⁹ on the things they have bought, or so that they can be replaced when obsolete or worn out. The American high standard of family living also means a high standard of work, working hard without letup.¹⁰

⁹ keep up the payments: pay regularly when they must pay

¹⁰ without letup: without resting or stopping



Both husband and wife work.



A father teaching his son.



A mother teaching her daughter.

7] It may be that this new kind of family, which involves the father so closely, is an experiment in producing a new kind of man and woman. Throughout the history of the race, both sexes have been reared primarily by women, and boys had to learn how to be “not women” before they could learn to be men. Now, in this modern American family, they can learn directly from their fathers, as girls have always learned directly from their mothers. Perhaps the formation of these tight, close young families may be preparation for some unknown adventure that awaits in the future of the human race.

INTENSIVE QUESTIONING: *Yes-No* Questions

Refer to the reading as you choose between *yes* and *no* answers.

1. Are Americans today marrying at an earlier age than their parents did?

Yes, they are.
2. Are early marriages placing new responsibilities on young people?
3. Are young men expected to decide on their careers early?
4. In the past, did those who were to become leaders marry early?
5. Did they mature away from the influence of women?
6. Are young people who marry expected to have children at once?
7. Do they expect others to support their families?
8. Are they expected to support their families while going to school?
9. Do future doctors hold down all-day jobs?
10. Do young husbands help their wives with the children?
11. Has anything valuable been sacrificed in the rush toward early marriage?
12. Do young husbands have much time for friendship outside the home?
13. Must young men choose between early marriage and irresponsibility?
14. Is there any room between the two extremes?
15. Is there much chance for youthful pranks?
16. Has this new responsibility been all for the bad?
17. Is the new responsibility hard on the young?
18. Do American fathers take good care of their children?
19. Do mothers have much companionship from their husbands?
20. Do the children have a warm family life?
21. Is a father still the absent breadwinner?
22. Does this shared domesticity put a brake on divorce?

INTENSIVE QUESTIONING: *Wh* Questions

Refer to the reading to find the correct answers.

1. When do Americans today get married?
They get married at an early age.
2. What are these early marriages doing to young people?

3. What decisions are young men expected to make by the time they reach high school?

4. How did young leaders in the past spend this period of their lives?

5. What are young men expected to do now?

6. What are they expected to do while going to school?

7. What are many future doctors doing besides studying?

8. What do they do at night and on weekends?

9. What is one valuable thing that has been sacrificed in the rush toward early marriage?

10. What must young men choose between?

11. What is there no room for?

12. What is there no longer much chance for?

13. What kind of homes are these young people building?

14. What effect does this shared domesticity have on divorce?

15. Why is the home of the young couple a heavy weight?

16. What is the home designed to do?

17. What is a necessity for every American family?

Understanding Ideas

1. What valuable things have been sacrificed in the rush toward early marriage?
2. What are some of the things that have been gained in early marriages?
3. In what ways is the home “both a beloved shelter and a heavy weight”?

Applying Ideas

1. What is the average age at which young people get married in your country? At what age do you plan to get married?
2. What do you think are the advantages and disadvantages of early marriage?
3. Do you think that wives and mothers should work? What is to be gained if the wife works? What is sacrificed?

COMPOSITION

Organization

A. Notice that Dr. Mead also uses a cause and effect organization. The following outline will show the plan of the reading:

1. Central thought: paragraphs 1 and 2. In these paragraphs Dr. Mead points out that Americans are marrying earlier than their parents did (cause) and that these marriages are placing new responsibilities on them (effect). Paragraph 2 is organized by contrasting the past and the present. The first sentence begins with “In the past” What word signals a contrast with the past?
2. Effects:
 - a. *Things sacrificed*: Which paragraph discusses the things that have been sacrificed? What is the topic sentence—the sentence that announces the subject of the paragraph?
 - b. *Things gained*: Which paragraph discusses the things that have been gained? What expression provides a transition between paragraphs 3 and 4?
 - c. *The home itself*: paragraphs 5 and 6. How does the first sen-

- tence of paragraph 5 suggest that a two-part development will follow? What idea is discussed in paragraph 5? in paragraph 6?
3. Conclusion: paragraph 7. What kind of relationship exists between parents and children in this new kind of family? What does Dr. Mead suggest this new kind of family is a preparation for?

B. Write a paragraph beginning with the following sentence: *Early marriages are placing new responsibilities on young married couples in America.*

Longer Composition (optional)

Write a composition of three paragraphs with a cause and effect organization. Choose one of the following topics:

1. More mothers are working outside the home than ever before.
2. Many young men are obliged to work while they go to school.
3. Fathers are spending more time with their children than they used to.

Sentence Connectors: *consequently* and *furthermore*

A. *Consequently* means something like “as a result of this.” *Furthermore* means something like “in addition to this.” Decide what the relationship should be between the two sentences, and then supply the connector that establishes that relationship.

1. Americans today are marrying at an earlier age than their parents and grandparents did; _____, they are required to assume heavy responsibilities when they are still very young.
2. Young men must assume responsibility early; _____, there is no longer much chance for youthful pranks or youthful experimentation.
3. Many future doctors are holding down jobs; _____, they are helping their wives at night and on weekends in the care of the children.
4. There are appliances in the kitchen; _____, there is an automobile at the door, a necessity for every American family.
5. The young fathers spend more time at home; _____, they are closer to their children.

B. Combine the following sentences with *consequently* or *furthermore*. Follow the punctuation used in A.

1. By the time young men reach high school, they are expected to decide on their careers. They are expected to begin to spend enough time with girls to assure an early marriage.
2. The young husband works part time during the week when he is going to school. He has a full-time job on weekends.
3. The young couple did not have enough money to keep up the payments on their house. The wife had to go to work.
4. Fathers are spending more time with their children than ever before. Husbands are spending more time with their wives.
5. A father is no longer the distant head of the household. A brake is put on divorce.

C. Write two sentences of your own and connect them with *consequently*. Write two more sentences and connect them with *furthermore*.

GRAMMAR. Request Clauses after Adjectives

Model: It is essential.

His wife should work to help pay the bills.

. . . that his wife should work to help pay the bills.

It is essential that his wife work to help pay the bills.

11.1 Follow the model as you construct sentences with request clauses after adjectives.

1. It is fitting.

Young couples should ask their parents' consent before getting married.

. . . that _____

2. It is important.

The husband should spend time with the children.

. . . that _____

3. It is vital.

Young couples should manage their money carefully.

. . . that _____

4. It is crucial.

Both husband and wife should accept responsibilities.

. . . that _____

5. It is necessary.

Parents should make sacrifices for their children.

. . . that _____

6. It is advisable.

Young couples should be able to support their own children.

. . . that _____

7. It was preferable.

The young husband should get a job on weekends.

. . . that _____

Model: It is essential that many young wives should work.

It is essential that many young wives work.

for . . . to

It is essential for many young wives to work.

11.2 Follow the model as you construct two more sentences.

1. It is fitting that young couples should ask the parents' consent before getting married.

2. It is important that both husband and wife should spend time with the children.

3. It is vital that young couples should manage money carefully.

4. It is crucial that both husband and wife should accept responsibilities.

5. It is appropriate that couples should emphasize companionship in marriage.

6. It is necessary that parents should make sacrifices for the children.

7. It was preferable that the young husband should get a job on weekends.

8. It is advisable that both parents should discipline the children.

Clauses after Nouns of Request

Model: Their daughter should finish college before marrying.
Their advice was . . .
Their advice was that their daughter should finish college before marrying.
Their advice was that their daughter finish college before marrying.

11.3 Follow the model as you construct sentences with clauses after nouns of request.

- 1. You should pay close attention to your work.
My suggestion was . . .

- 2. You should take a blood test before you get a marriage license.
The requirement of the state was . . .

- 3. He should choose between early marriage and irresponsibility.
His alternative was . . .

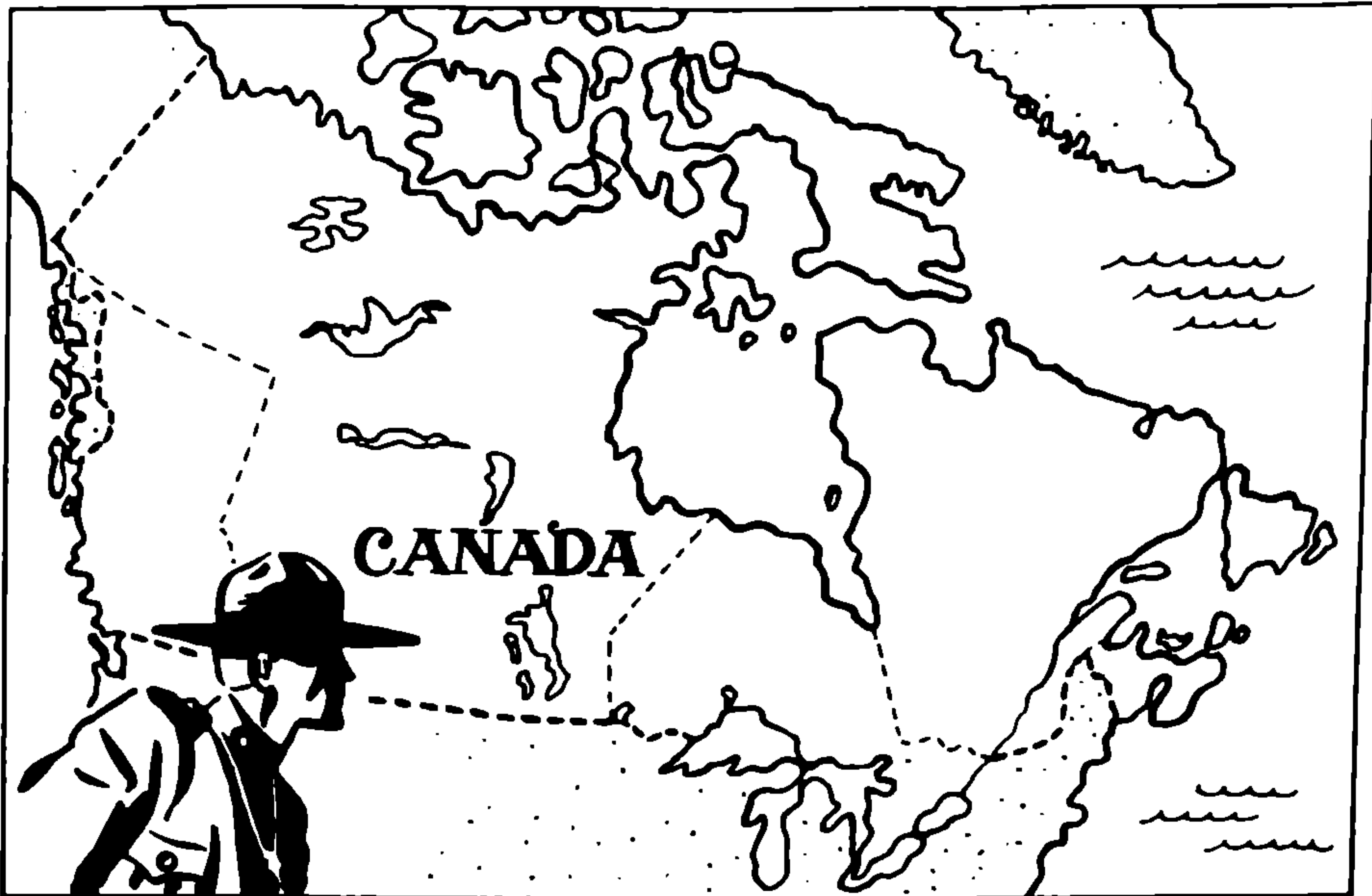
- 4. His wife should stay home and take care of the children.
His preference was . . .

- 5. The divorce should not be granted.
The judge's decision was . . .

- 6. Their wedding present should be used for a down payment on a house.
The parents' proposal was . . .

Twelve: THE FIVE CANADAS

by **MORLEY CALLAGHAN** Mr. Callaghan is one of Canada's most important novelists. He is also a journalist, a lawyer, and a lifelong critic and analyst of Canadian life and culture. Among his novels are *Inherit the Earth*, *The Loved and Lost*, *A Passion in Rome*, and most recently a study of literary life in Paris in the twenties, *That Summer in Paris*.



Map of Canada showing the five regions.

THE MARITIME PROVINCES

1) Looking at Canada from east to west, we begin with the Maritime Provinces: ¹ Nova Scotia, New Brunswick, Prince Edward Island, and the new island province, Newfoundland. The English and the Scots have been in these provinces for a long time. They were joined by the United Empire Loyalists ² who left the United States at the time of the Revolution.³ Since all these people were deeply dyed-in-the-wool ⁴ Britishers, the Maritimes from the beginning was the British stronghold, with its great port of Halifax and now its great dry dock at St. John's.

¹ Maritime Provinces: provinces (the largest subdivisions of the country) along or near the sea, in this case, the Atlantic Ocean

² United Empire Loyalists: the group of people who did not like the idea of the American Revolution and moved to Canada to live

³ the Revolution: the American Revolution of 1775

⁴ dyed-in-the-wool: hard-to-change; unchangeable

2] When the Maritime Provinces were joined with the other provinces into a country called Canada, the Maritimer began to make his unique contribution to the molding of the native temperament and character. Maritimers turn up ⁵ all over Canada in the head offices of the banks, in cabinet councils, in fact in every place where someone is trying to direct or control the country.

FRENCH-SPEAKING QUEBEC

3] Traveling westward from the Maritime Provinces, one finds oneself suddenly among people of another language and culture—the French Catholics of Quebec, a very wealthy province stretching from Hudson Bay in the north to the settlements along the St. Lawrence River in the south. Life follows an old European pattern here, both in the countryside and in the great cities of Quebec and Montreal. But the people of the province are beginning to feel the influence of the North American economic force. The girls go off ⁶ to work in the textile factories, and many families have relatives in the New England States. The province of Quebec is old France and new France, and yet it is also North America.

4] Every English-speaking citizen becomes aware, in school books and newspapers, of the powerful unity of the French-speaking Canadians, which gives them a capacity for shaping the political character of the whole country. Canadians who don't learn the French language are always at a disadvantage with their French brothers who cheerfully speak both languages but love the Canadian who knows how to talk in their own tongue.



A long narrow farm.



The old citadel city of Quebec.

⁵ turn up: appear; show themselves

⁶ go off: go out; go away from home

5] These French Canadians give a certain color and charm and vivacity to the character of the whole nation. Though their culture and language are basically French, they are a northern people now whose temperament has been touched by the long winters, the snow, the mountains, the northern lights,⁷ and the memory of the forest silence.

ONTARIO

6] Going from Quebec into Ontario is like going back among the maritime people. The Maritimers wouldn't agree with this, of course, for they would be thinking of the rich fat farmlands of southern Ontario, the big industrial and financial centers like Toronto, and the vast mineral wealth of northern Ontario. But the people of Ontario are predominantly of British stock,⁸ and strongly Protestant.⁹ The Ontario native is fairly contented and has a peculiar ability to avoid seeing what he doesn't want to see. Toronto by this time is the most American of the big Canadian cities; yet most of the natives still think of it as the most British town on the continent.

7] Not only in Toronto, but in those towns near the Detroit River, are big blocks of those European immigrants who are called with polite quaintness in Ontario, "New Canadians."¹⁰ But it is only when you go north through the mining towns and across the great rock shield, through the lake-dotted forests,¹¹ that these other New Canadians begin to show themselves as a part of the Canadian landscape. In a valley clearing¹² a Finnish woman stands at the log hut waving to the train, and a Slovak girl at a whistle-stop restaurant¹³ stands in the night watching the flashing lights of the train passing by. In small

⁷ the northern lights: the strange, colored streamers of lights which appear in the night skies in the very northern areas of the world; also known as the aurora borealis

⁸ of British stock: with ancestors who lived in Great Britain

⁹ strongly Protestant: characterized as being strong believers in the Protestant faith (branch of Christianity)

¹⁰ with polite quaintness . . . "New Canadians": That is, the phrase is at once picturesque and polite—more polite than the usual term *immigrants*.

¹¹ lake-dotted forests: forests with many lakes in them

¹² valley clearing: place in the valley without trees

¹³ whistle-stop restaurant: restaurant in a town so small that trains stop only when signaled to stop

settlements on the way to the prairie land are people from all the countries of Europe.

THE PRAIRIE PROVINCES

8] The fourth Canada is the Canada of the prairie provinces that stretch across the western plains from Ontario to the Rocky Mountains. In the west under the incredible northern lights and in the long prairie twilight, people of many racial stocks have lived around the shining golden wheat bowl,¹⁴ and they have blended into the basic British stock as they have done in no other part of Canada. They have their reward in a kind of easygoing acceptance¹⁵ of each other and a common acceptance of the mother soil.

THE PACIFIC COASTAL SHELF

9] Over the Rockies is the soft, comforting climate of the British Columbian cities of Vancouver and Victoria. This is the fifth Canada, lying below Alaska along the Pacific coastal shelf. It is true that in Vancouver bearded Sikhs from India¹⁶ are at home in the streets, and the harbor beckons to all the peoples of the Orient, and sailors come from strange ports. The Japanese came for a while with their fishing fleets, but Orientals, as yet, are not expected to come and stay. The Canadians of Vancouver and Victoria are like Easterners set down in a softer, milder climate.

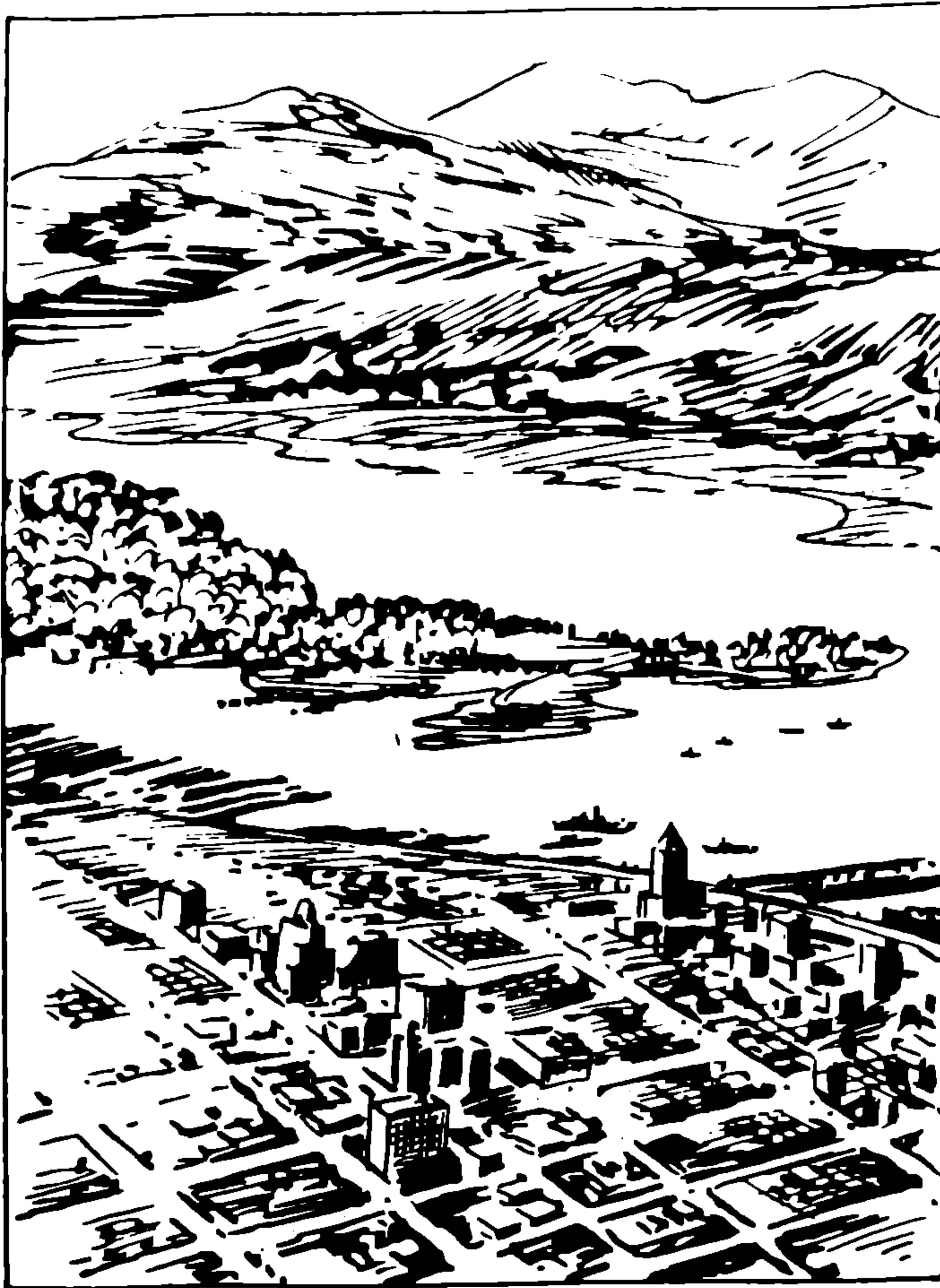
10] Canada is a country of powerful minorities and can be governed only in a spirit of compromise.¹⁷ This lesson in compromise, learned so thoroughly in the school books and in the public forums and in Parliament, has got into the Canadian blood, and it is what makes the Canadian recognizably different from a citizen of the United States.

¹⁴ wheat bowl: area where wheat is the main product

¹⁵ easygoing acceptance: acceptance (the act of getting to know and becoming friends) without formality or questions

¹⁶ bearded Sikhs from India: Sikhs form one of the many religious groups in India. Its men traditionally wear a turban on the head and grow a beard.

¹⁷ can be governed only in a spirit of compromise: that is, can be governed only if people are willing to reconcile differing points of view



Streets near the harbor in Vancouver.

For many decades he hasn't been quite sure what he is, or what he stands for,¹⁸ and has appeared shyly diffident when in his travels he has met people from other countries. Until recently he has avoided all national symbols; he pretended he wanted to be anonymous.

11] Yet in the great wars he has suddenly seen himself in another light. At home when people from other nations were around, he wouldn't have thought of asserting himself¹⁹ as a Canadian. But abroad with his fellow Canadians he discovered himself. Now back at home there is a new passion among Canadians to declare themselves as Canadian, a passion natural and inevitable among men who have suddenly realized the wealth of their country and its growing influence in the world.

¹⁸ what he stands for: what he believes in; what he represents

¹⁹ asserting himself: making himself known without being asked

INTENSIVE QUESTIONING: *Yes-No* Questions

Refer to the reading as you choose between *yes* and *no* answers.

1. Is Nova Scotia a maritime province?

Yes, it is.
2. Is Newfoundland an island?
3. Have the English and Scots been in these provinces a long time?
4. Were they joined by immigrants from the United States?
5. Were the Loyalists from the United States loyal to Great Britain?
6. Was the Maritimes a British stronghold?
7. Has the Maritimer helped to mold the Canadian character?
8. Is Quebec west of the Maritime Provinces?
9. Is Quebec a French-speaking province?
10. Is Montreal in the Maritimes?
11. Is Quebec being influenced by the rest of North America?
12. Is Quebec both French and North American?
13. Are the French Canadians unified politically?
14. Are the Canadians who don't speak French at a disadvantage?
15. Do the French Canadians give a certain charm to the character of Canada?
16. Have the French Canadians been influenced by the long winters?
17. Are the people of Ontario like the Maritimers?
18. Are the people of Ontario predominantly of British stock?
19. Are the people of Ontario predominantly Catholic?
20. Is Toronto the most French of the big Canadian cities?
21. Do the natives still think of Toronto as the most British town on the continent?
22. Are there many European immigrants in Ontario?

INTENSIVE QUESTIONING: *Wh* Questions

Refer to the reading to find the correct answers.

- 1. What provinces do we begin with?
We begin with the Maritime Provinces.
- 2. Where were the first settlers from?

- 3. Who joined the English and Scots?

- 4. Why was the Maritimes a British stronghold from the beginning?

- 5. Where can you find Maritimers in Canada?

- 6. What province lies directly west of the Maritimes?

- 7. What language is spoken by the majority of people in Quebec?

- 8. To what religion do the majority of people in Quebec belong?

- 9. What are two great cities in the province of Quebec?

- 10. What influence are the people of Quebec feeling?

- 11. Where are the girls going off to work?

- 12. What capacity do the French Canadians have?

- 13. What do the French Canadians give to the character of the whole nation?

- 14. What religion is predominant in Ontario?

- 15. What European country do most of the people of Ontario come from?

- 16. What are European immigrants in Ontario called?

Understanding Ideas

1. What are the five Canadas? Find each of them on the map on page 122.
2. What are the two main languages spoken in Canada? Where are the French-speaking Canadians located?
3. Why can Canada be governed only in a spirit of compromise? What makes the Canadian recognizably different from a citizen of the United States?

Applying Ideas

1. How many distinct regions is your country divided into? Are the differences between these regions great or small? In what ways do the regions differ from each other?
2. What does your particular region contribute to the national character of your country? Does it have special foods? special customs? a special dialect?
3. Is your country, like Canada, a country of powerful minorities? If so, how are these minorities unified? By a common language? By representation in the government? By the school systems?

COMPOSITION

Organization

A. Notice that geographical divisions are used as a basis of organizing the essay:

1. *The Maritime Provinces:*

What paragraphs belong to division 1? Does the first paragraph provide a general introduction to the essay? What is the first paragraph about?

2. *French-speaking Quebec:*

What paragraphs belong to division 2? How is the transition made between paragraphs 2 and 3?

3. *Ontario:*

What paragraphs belong to division 3? What sentence provides a transition between divisions 2 and 3?

4. *The Prairie Provinces:*

What paragraph belongs to division 4? What is the transitional sentence that connects divisions 3 and 4?

5. *The Pacific Coastal Shelf:*

What paragraph belongs to division 5? What sentences provide the transition between divisions 4 and 5?

6. *Conclusion:*

What is Mr. Callaghan's conclusion? How has the Canadian begun to change his attitude toward his country?

B. Write a composition that begins with the following sentence: In his essay Morley Callaghan describes five Canadas.

Longer Composition (optional)

1. Write a paragraph that begins with the following sentences: *From east to west (or north to south, etc.) my country is divided into _____ distinct regions. Three of the most interesting regions are* Choose three of the regions and write one paragraph describing each of them.
2. Choose three outstanding characteristics of your own region and write one paragraph describing each. Begin your composition with the following sentence: *Three outstanding characteristics of my region are*

Sentence Connectors: *nevertheless* and *moreover*

A. *Nevertheless* means something like "in spite of this." *Moreover* is similar to *furthermore*; it means something like "in addition to this."

1. Quebec is old France and new France; _____, it is also North America.
2. The people of Ontario are strongly Protestant; _____, they are predominantly of British stock.
3. The people of the prairie provinces are of many different racial stocks; _____, they have blended into the basic British stock as they have done in no other part of Canada.
4. Toronto is the most American of the big Canadian cities; _____, most of the natives still think of it as the most British town on the continent.

5. The people of the prairie provinces have an easygoing acceptance of each other; _____, they have a common acceptance of the mother soil.

B. Combine the following sentences with *nevertheless* or *moreover*. Follow the punctuation used in A.

1. The people of Quebec are French in culture and language. Their temperament has been touched by the long northern winters.
2. The main language in the province of Quebec is French. Many of the people speak English.
3. The people of Ontario and the Maritime Provinces are predominantly of British stock. Most of them are Protestant.
4. The Maritimers might not agree. Ontario is very similar to the Maritimes.
5. The Canadian is beginning to discover himself. He is beginning to realize the growing influence of his country in the world.

C. Write two sentences of your own and connect them with *nevertheless*. Write two more sentences and connect them with *moreover*.

GRAMMAR. Content Clauses after Verb-Noun Pairs

Model: The speaker feared that some minorities would not be recognized.

the speaker feared → his fear

His fear that some minorities would not be recognized . . .

. . . was unfounded.

His fear that some minorities would not be recognized was unfounded.

12.1 Follow the model to construct sentences with content clauses.

- 1. He realized that there were many minorities in Canada.**

he realized → *his realization*

. . . was the reason for his concern.

- 2. He hoped that Canada would always be governed in a spirit of compromise.**

he hoped → *his hope*

. . . was shared by everyone in the audience.

- 3. He emphasized that Canada's power would continue to grow.**

he emphasized → *his emphasis*

. . . was clear.

4. He argued that Canadians should assert their own identity.

he argued → *his argument*

. . . was very convincing.

- 5. He believes that Canadians have discovered themselves.**

he believes → his belief

. . . is held by many others.

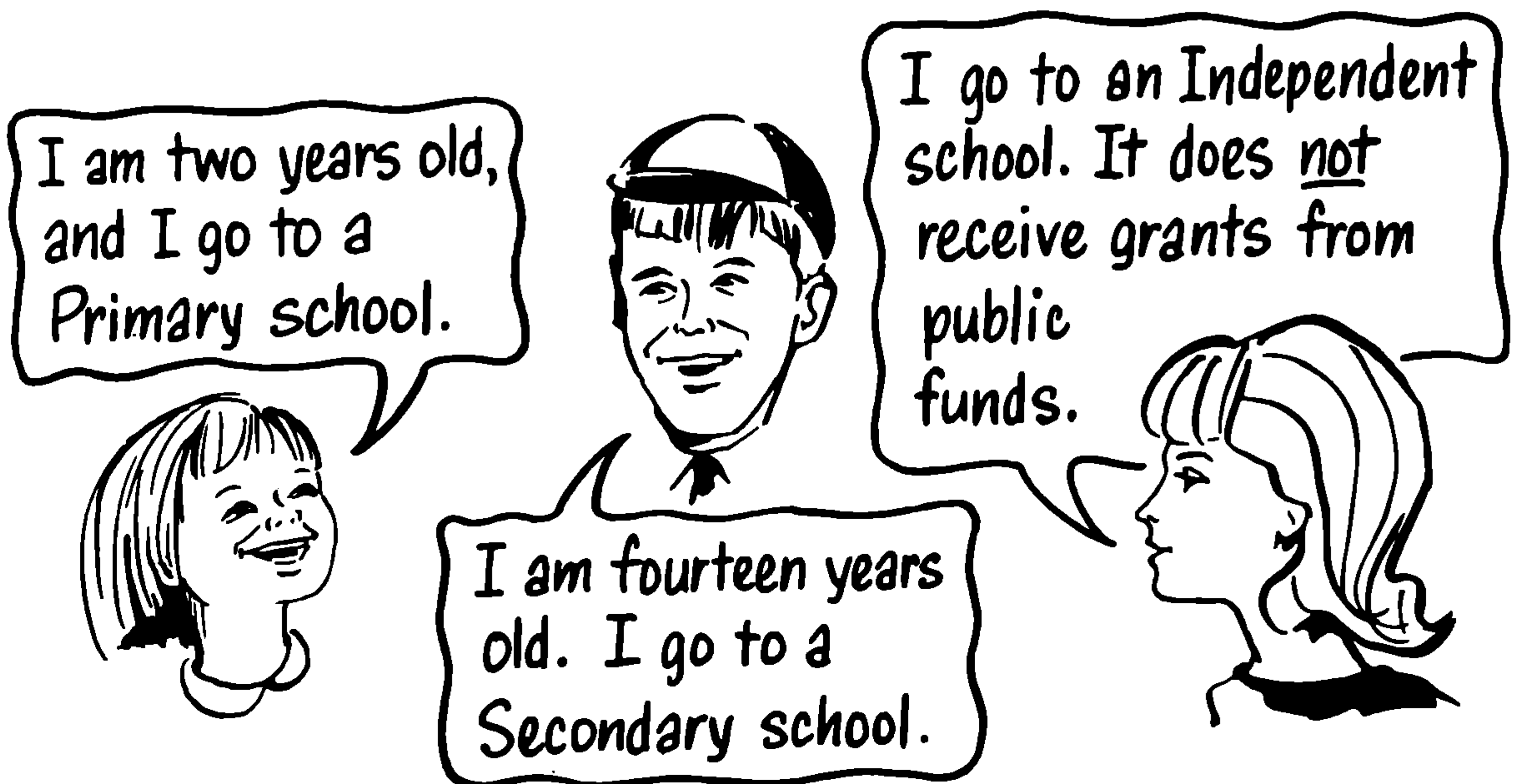
- 6. He suspected that Canadians should know more about their land.**

he suspected → his suspicion

There is evidence to support . . .

Thirteen: A BIRD'S-EYE VIEW OF ENGLISH PUBLIC EDUCATION

by **HAROLD C. DENT** Professor Dent, who was Director of the Sheffield University Institute of Education, and later Assistant Dean of the Institute of Education at the University of London, served for several years as educational correspondent for the *London Times* and as editor of the *Times Educational Supplement*. He has served as headmaster of a British school, has written fourteen books on British education, and is editor of the *Yearbook of Technical Education*. The following essay is based on material in his well-known book *The Educational System of England and Wales*. Any statement about contemporary education is likely to need constant revision. As Professor Dent says in the preface to the first edition, "The present is a time of spectacularly rapid growth and change; inevitably by the time this book is published some passages in it will be out of date."



1) Pre-university education in England and Wales is organised in two stages. First, there are the Primary schools, which take the child from the age of five to the age of eleven or slightly after. Next, the child enters a Secondary school, at which he may stay until perhaps as late as nineteen. These schools are free.

2) For pre-primary children aged two to five, there are voluntary Nursery schools. At age five compulsory primary education begins for all children. Primary education is divided into Infant schools (five to seven) and Junior schools, which enrol children from seven to eleven, or slightly beyond. Boys and girls are educated together in Nursery schools and usually are not separated into two different classes in the other two.

3] Teaching methods in these schools may vary considerably,¹ some teachers preferring to emphasise class instruction, others relying on informal individual and group activities. In the Junior school the basic subjects of English and arithmetic are often taught in formal classes, while work in history, geography, nature study, music, art, and religious instruction may be done in individual or group projects. Many Junior schools, as well, try to group children into classes according to their abilities, partly to ease the teacher's task and partly to give the abler children a better chance to pass the tests which admit them to the different kinds of secondary education.

4] All children by law must pass from a Primary school to a Secondary school between the ages of ten and a half and twelve. The type of public-supported Secondary school² they attend is still, for the most part, determined by the so-called "Eleven-plus" examinations which are given by the local education authorities. When this examination is given, the opinions of the teachers and the child's entire record are taken into consideration³ as well, and in some cases a pupil may even be re-tested if the original results do not seem accurate. All this information is used to try to determine which form of secondary education will be best for the individual and most suited to his or her abilities. However, the Government has asked all local education authorities to submit plans for reorganising secondary education into Comprehensive schools taking all children of secondary school age, and this will do away with the "Eleven-plus."

5] The Secondary schools are still organised into three main types—Grammar, Technical, and Modern—but the number of Comprehensive schools is increasing quite rapidly. The functions of the Grammar and the Technical schools are easy to define. The Grammar school, which accepts about 20 per cent of the most intellectually able children, provides an académic course leading, for the best students, to study at a university or some other establishment of higher educa-

¹ vary considerably: be quite different (from school to school)

² public-supported Secondary school: Secondary school that is maintained by public money raised through taxation

³ taken into consideration: considered; examined

tion. It is the school for the intellectual *élite*.⁴ The Secondary Technical school offers courses leading toward some occupation or group of occupations, the most common being engineering for boys and commercial subjects for girls.

6] The Secondary Modern school, which came into being ⁵ under the Education Act of 1944, presently takes care of about 70 per cent of the Secondary school population in England and Wales. It includes schools of very different kinds and enrolls pupils of a wide range of abilities. In general, however, it is designed for children of modest abilities.⁶ It therefore does not concentrate so much on academic subjects as the other schools do and expects a lower level of attainment. The Modern schools emphasise the basic study of English and mathematics and the various skills and handicrafts. The growing interest in the Secondary Modern school has led to ⁷ the establishment of a number of experimental types with different aims and different emphases on subject matter.

7] Outside of the publicly supported system of schools at the primary and secondary levels, of course, are the independent schools, about 4,000 of them, ranging from small privately owned kindergartens to the famous "public" schools, such as Eton and Harrow. No independent school can receive grants from public funds, but local education authorities may make agreements with independent schools whereby the school accepts pupils whose tuition fees are paid, in whole or in part, by the authority.

8] Public education in Britain has been marked by tremendous growth since the passage of the Act in 1944. Thousands of new schools have been built, the supply of trained teachers has more than doubled, and the amount of money pledged to education by Parliament has soared. Three principal causes have been responsible for ⁸ this rapid growth and development: the need to provide the best facilities for a rapidly

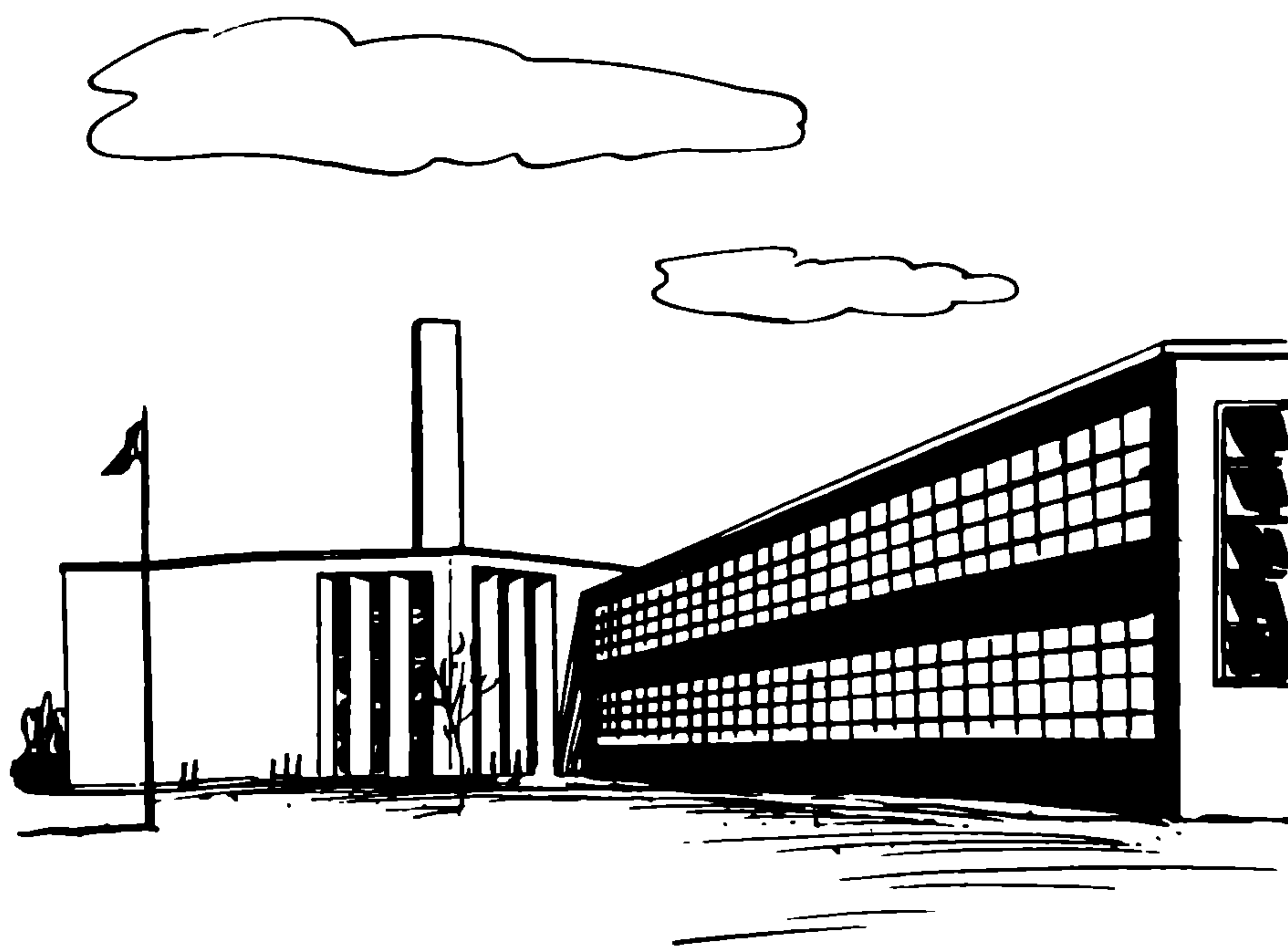
⁴ the intellectual *élite*: The few who are intellectually superior, in contrast to the many students who are intellectually average or below average

⁵ came into being: was established; was started

⁶ of modest abilities: having only average or below-average ability; not usually intelligent ⁷ led to: resulted in

⁸ have been responsible: have brought about; were the reasons for

growing population of young people; the demand of the “Atomic Age” for scientists and technologists on a scale never before imagined; and the realisation by the public that, as Sir Winston Churchill said in the House of Commons, “the future belongs to the highly educated nations.”



A new school

INTENSIVE QUESTIONING: *Yes-No* Questions

Refer to the reading as you choose between *yes* and *no* answers.

1. Is preuniversity education organized in three stages?

No, it isn't.
2. Do Nursery schools come before Infant schools?
3. Do the Primary schools take the child from two to nineteen?
4. Are there nineteen-year-olds in Secondary schools?
5. Do the students pay for school?
6. Do Infant schools take the youngest children?
7. Do Nursery schools take the youngest children?
8. Can children begin Nursery school at the age of two?
9. Do Infant schools take children from five to eleven?
10. Is Nursery education voluntary?
11. Must every child go to school at the age of five?
12. Are boys and girls educated separately in Nursery schools?
13. Do teaching methods vary considerably?
14. Are English and arithmetic the basic subjects in the Junior school?
15. Is arithmetic often taught in individual and group projects?
16. Do some Junior schools group children according to their abilities?
17. Must every child pass to a Secondary school before he is thirteen?
18. Is the type of Secondary school determined by the "Eleven-plus" examination?
19. Are the "Eleven-plus" examinations given by the national education authorities?
20. Are the teachers' opinions taken into consideration?
21. Is it possible to be retested?

INTENSIVE QUESTIONING: *Wh* Questions

Refer to the reading to find the correct answers.

- 1. How many stages is preuniversity education organized in?
It is organized in two stages.
- 2. What stage comes first?

- 3. What age are the children in Primary schools?

- 4. Where does the child go after Primary school?

- 5. How long can the child stay in a Secondary school?

- 6. How much do children pay for Primary school?

- 7. What two schools does primary education include?

- 8. How old are the children in Nursery schools? in Infant schools?

- 9. At what age must every child go to school?

- 10. In which schools are boys and girls always educated together?

- 11. In what ways do teaching methods vary?

- 12. What are the basic subjects in Junior school?

- 13. What subjects may be done in individual or group projects?

- 14. Why are children sometimes grouped according to their abilities?

- 15. At what age must children pass from Primary to Secondary school?

- 16. What determines the kind of Secondary school they attend?

- 17. What is taken into consideration besides the examination?

Understanding Ideas

1. Do students have a choice as to the type of Secondary school they will attend? If not, how are they assigned to a school?
2. What is the difference between a Grammar school, a Technical school, and a Secondary Modern school?

Applying Ideas

1. How many stages is preuniversity education in your country organized in? How old are the children in primary school? in secondary school?
2. Do you have one type of secondary school or do you have several types? If you have several, how does the student know which type he is to attend? Is he able to choose the type of secondary school he wants?
3. Describe the growth of education in your country within recent years. Is education free? Do all students attend primary school? Is secondary education compulsory? Is your government emphasizing primary education? secondary education? university education? education on all levels?

COMPOSITION

Organization

A. Notice that Professor Dent's essay is organized by division and classification. He begins by saying that preuniversity education is organized in two stages (division), and then he breaks down each stage into types (classification).

1. Which paragraphs deal with primary education? What kinds of schools are included in primary education?
2. Which paragraphs deal with public-supported secondary education? What kinds of schools are included in secondary education?
3. What paragraph deals with independent schools? What range do these schools cover? How many independent schools are there?
4. Paragraph 8 deals with the growth of public education. What three causes have been responsible for this rapid growth? Make a statement describing these three causes: *The three causes that have been responsible for the rapid growth of public education in England and Wales are*

B. Write a paragraph that begins with this sentence: *If you have finished Secondary school in England, you have gone through the following stages.*

Longer Composition

Write a composition of several paragraphs about one of the following subjects. First divide the subject into several parts. Then develop each part by giving details.

1. Preuniversity education in our country is organized in _____ stages.
2. Education in our country (including university education) is organized in _____ stages.
3. Secondary school in our country is divided into _____ grades.

Sentence Connectors: *for example* and *in fact*

A. *For example* means something like “by way of illustration.” *In fact* means something like “actually” or “in reality.” It often follows a general statement and refines it or gives particulars. “I stayed up late last night; in fact, I didn’t go to bed until after midnight.” Decide which of the two connectors fits best in the following blanks:

1. Teaching methods in Nursery schools vary considerably; _____, some teachers prefer to emphasize class instruction, while others rely on informal individual and group activities.
2. The Grammar school, which accepts about 20 per cent of the most intellectually able children, provides an academic course leading to study at a university; _____, it is the school for the intellectual *élite*.
3. There are a number of independent schools; _____, there are more than 4,000 of them in our country.
4. Public education has been marked by tremendous growth; _____, many new schools have been built, and the supply of teachers has almost doubled.
5. Local education authorities may make agreements with independent schools; _____, the schools often accept pupils whose tuition fees are paid, in whole or in part, by the authority.

B. Combine the following sentences with *for example* or *in fact*. Follow the punctuation used in A.

1. Primary schools in our country are free. All preuniversity education is free.
2. The Secondary Technical school offers courses leading toward some occupation or group of occupations. Boys most often take engineering and girls take commercial subjects such as typing and shorthand.
3. The Secondary Modern school is still in an experimental stage. It includes schools of very different kinds and enrolls pupils of a wide range of abilities.
4. The Secondary Modern school does not concentrate so much on academic subjects as the other schools do. It is designed for children of modest abilities.
5. The basic subjects are often taught differently from the others. English and arithmetic are often taught in formal classes, while music and art may be done in individual or group projects.

C. Write two sentences of your own and connect them with *for example* or *in fact*. Follow the punctuation used in A.

GRAMMAR. Noun Clauses: Alternatives with *whether*

Model: They questioned . . .

Teachers' salaries were high enough.

Teachers' salaries were not high enough.

- a. Either teachers' salaries were high enough, or they were not high enough.
- b. . . . whether teachers' salaries were high enough or they were not high enough.
- c. . . . whether teachers' salaries were high enough or were not high enough.
- d. . . . whether teachers' salaries were high enough or were not.
- e. . . . whether teachers' salaries were high enough or not.
- f. . . . whether or not teachers' salaries were high enough.
- g. . . . whether teachers' salaries were high enough.

They questioned whether teachers' salaries were high enough.

13.1 Follow the model as you construct noun clauses with *whether*.

1. We asked . . .

They charge tuition for primary schools.

They do not charge tuition for primary schools.

- a. Either _____
- b. . . . whether _____
- c. . . . whether _____
- d. . . . whether _____
- e. . . . whether _____
- f. . . . whether _____
- g. . . . whether _____

We asked _____

2. They worried . . .

The examination really tested the students' knowledge.

The examination did not really test the students' knowledge.

- a. Either _____
- b. . . . whether _____
- c. . . . whether _____
- d. . . . whether _____
- e. . . . whether _____
- f. . . . whether _____
- g. . . . whether _____

They worried _____

3. The minister questioned . . .
We had enough secondary schools.
We did not have enough secondary schools.
- a. Either _____
 - b. . . . whether _____
 - c. . . . whether _____
 - d. . . . whether _____
 - e. . . . whether _____
 - f. . . . whether _____
 - g. . . . whether _____

The minister questioned _____

4. He wondered . . .
Teaching methods varied considerably.
Teaching methods did not vary considerably.
- a. Either _____
 - b. . . . whether _____
 - c. . . . whether _____
 - d. . . . whether _____
 - e. . . . whether _____
 - f. . . . whether _____
 - g. . . . whether _____

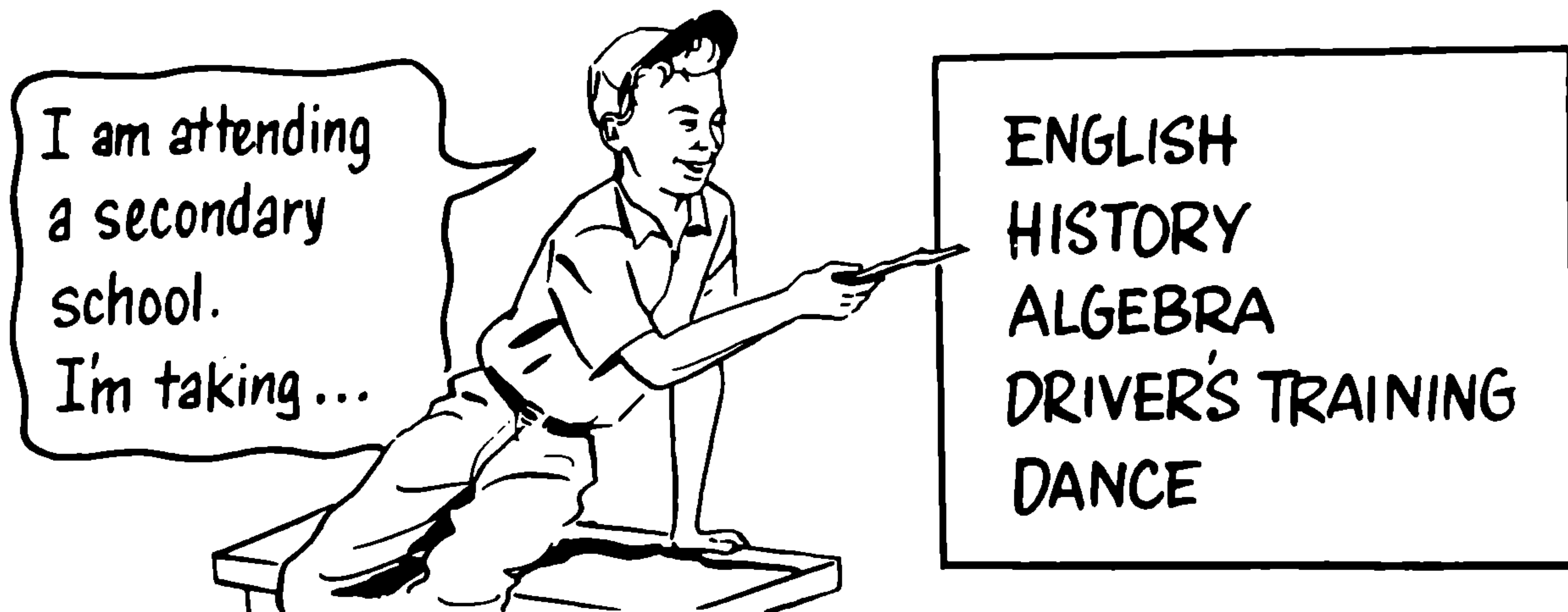
He wondered _____

5. He discussed . . .
The system of nursery schools could be improved.
The system of nursery schools could not be improved.
- a. Either _____
 - b. . . . whether _____
 - c. . . . whether _____
 - d. . . . whether _____
 - e. . . . whether _____
 - f. . . . whether _____
 - g. . . . whether _____

He discussed _____

Fourteen: HOW AMERICAN EDUCATION IS PLANNED

by **ROBERT J. HAVIGHURST** Dr. Havighurst, Professor of Education at the University of Chicago, is also a physicist and an authority in the field of scientific education. He has been Director of the General Education Board and co-Director of the Brazilian Government's Center for Educational Materials.



1] American education is designed to provide equality of opportunity. It is also designed to take account of individual differences and abilities. In order to realize these two aims, the American educational system has been shaped in certain characteristic ways.

2] Fundamental in American education is the "single-track" system of organization, consisting of a primary school which leads directly into a secondary school without an entrance examination, and a "comprehensive" secondary school which leads directly (by no means so easily ¹) into a college or university. This system permits each child to go as far as he can along this track, with a maximum freedom of choice. The university is always open to him at the end of the road, on the condition that ² he succeeds with his studies. This is in contrast to ³ the European "two-track" system in which a minority of children are admitted to an academic secondary school which leads to a university, while the majority follow a course which ends with the completion of elementary school or permits them to enter a vocational secondary school which does not lead to a university.

3] This freedom to attend secondary school and to enter a university—always providing one has successfully completed one's courses of

¹ by no means so easily: not at all so easily

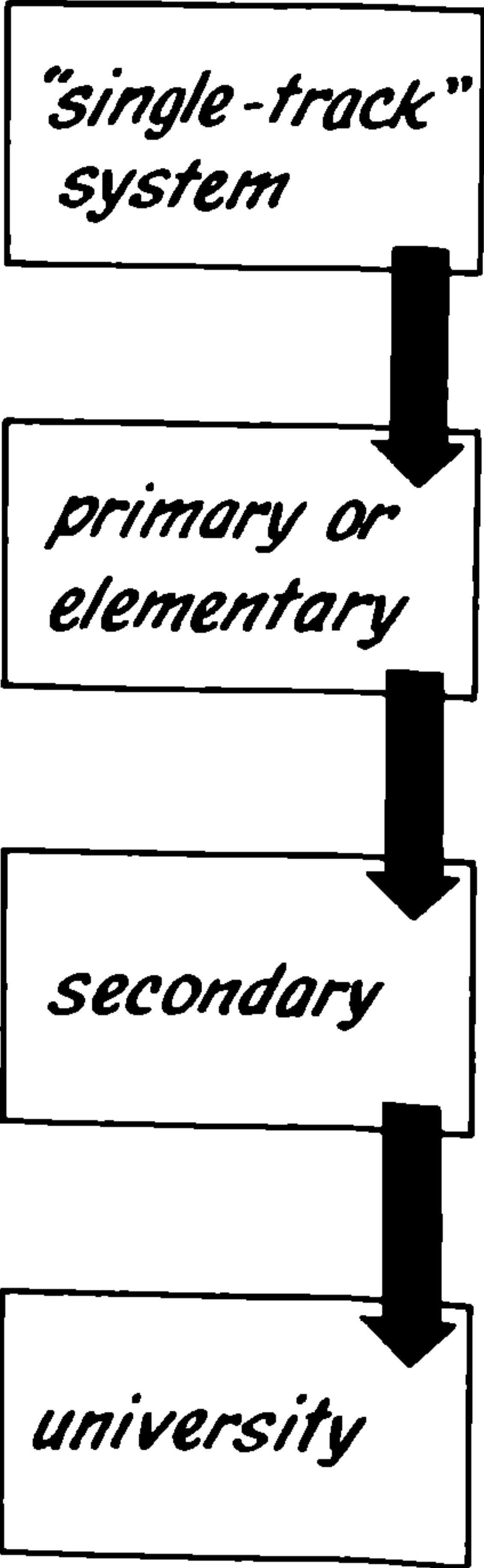
² on the condition that: if

³ in contrast to: very different from

study—makes American education a road to social and economic advancement, especially when combined with free or low-cost instruction. In the United States public elementary and secondary schools are free of cost, and public-supported colleges and universities have such low fees that they, too, may be said to be ⁴ effectively free.⁵ At present over 30 percent of American youth enter a college or university of some kind, and about 15 percent complete a four-year course.

4] However, there is a great danger in an educational system as open and accessible as this: the danger is that all children might be treated in the same way, as if they were all alike. To avoid this, American schools have tried to adapt their education to individual needs, so that everyone will have an opportunity to profit according to his own abilities and interests. Even though this practice falls short of the ideal,⁶ there are a number of ways by which the varying abilities, needs, and interests of individual students are served.

5] One common practice is to group students in the secondary schools by ability. There may be three groups, for example, for three different levels of ability among a class of students at a particular age. The ablest group will probably be given academic rather than vocational courses and will be expected to maintain a higher level of achievement than the other two. The middle-level group will be expected to master the work of the class without such great proficiency, but with a quality of performance that may lead to university entrance for those who want it. The lower-level group is given a more practical type of instruction, suited to ⁷ people who will work with their hands or in positions demanding less complex skills.



⁴ may be said to be: can be considered as; are
⁵ effectively free: almost or very nearly free
⁶ falls short of the ideal: is not quite ideal; is less than ideal
⁷ suited to: good for; fit for

6] At present the practice of grouping students by ability is growing more popular, but it is not customary yet in the majority of schools. Americans have always been slow to adopt any form of education that implies that members of one group are basically inferior to those of another. Even though differences in ability exist in any class, it is also argued that young people can learn just as well or better in groups of mixed abilities.

7] However, there is general agreement that one group of children must have separate classes and special instruction. These are the handicapped, whether by blindness, deafness, birth injury, crippling disease, or a very low mental ability. These pupils are usually taught by specially trained teachers in small classes consisting of ⁸ children with similar handicaps.

8] Another means of furnishing different kinds of education for students of differing aims and abilities is to offer them a variety of types of occupational training, both at secondary and at higher levels. Secondary schools offer courses in secretarial work, commercial skills, agriculture, printing, auto mechanics, and so on. In some of the larger cities there are vocational high schools which offer only courses of



Vocational school.

this nature. At the postsecondary level there are schools for nurses' training, for secretarial training, for operating business and other machines, for commercial subjects.

⁸ **consisting of:** made up of; having

9] American universities also have a wide variety of professional schools, including schools of law, theology, medicine, dentistry, engineering, architecture, music, education, business administration, journalism, agriculture, forestry, and even sometimes specialized fields such as hotel management. Some people feel it is unwise to combine the essentially intellectual and scientific with the highly practical. Others disagree, pointing out that the public university is an essential agency ⁹ of society and that it must meet certain vital needs of that society. The American desire for diversity and equality of opportunity make this kind of varied educational program almost inevitable.

⁹ an essential agency: a very important, or necessary, unit



Professional school at a university.

INTENSIVE QUESTIONING: *Yes-No* Questions

Refer to the reading as you choose between *yes* and *no* answers.

- | | |
|--|---------------|
| 1. Does primary school lead directly into a secondary school? | Yes, it does. |
| 2. Is there an entrance examination for secondary school? | _____ |
| 3. Does the comprehensive secondary school lead directly into a university? | _____ |
| 4. Does each child have a maximum freedom of choice? | _____ |
| 5. Is the university always open to each child? | _____ |
| 6. Does England have a one-track system? | _____ |
| 7. Does every secondary school in Europe lead to a university? | _____ |
| 8. Are a majority of students in Europe admitted to an academic secondary school? | _____ |
| 9. Does a vocational secondary school lead to a university? | _____ |
| 10. Are public elementary schools free in the United States? | _____ |
| 11. Do public-supported colleges have low fees? | _____ |
| 12. Do more than one-fourth of the young Americans commence work in a college or university? | _____ |
| 13. Is there a danger in an open educational system? | _____ |
| 14. Have efforts been made to adapt education to individual needs? | _____ |
| 15. Are there a number of ways by which varying abilities can be served? | _____ |
| 16. Are students in secondary schools always grouped by ability? | _____ |
| 17. Will the ablest group be given a more academic kind of instruction? | _____ |
| 18. Is the middle-level group excluded from a university? | _____ |
| 19. Is the lower-level group given a more academic type of instruction? | _____ |
| 20. Is it customary to group students by ability? | _____ |

INTENSIVE QUESTIONING: *Wh* Questions

Refer to the reading to find the correct answers.

1. What system of organization is fundamental in American education?
The single-track system is fundamental.
2. What does a primary school lead directly into?

3. What does secondary school lead directly into?

4. What does this system permit each child to do?

5. On what condition is the university open to a student?

6. What is the single-track system in contrast to?

7. How many children in the two-track system are admitted to an academic secondary school?

8. What course do the majority follow?

9. What is American education a road to?

10. How much do public elementary schools cost?

11. How high are the fees in public-supported colleges?

12. What percentage of American youth enter a college or university?

13. What is the great danger in such an open system?

14. How have the schools tried to avoid this danger?

15. How are some students grouped in the secondary schools?

16. What kind of courses will the ablest group be given?

17. What will the middle-level group be expected to achieve?

Understanding Ideas

1. What are the differences between the single-track system and the two-track system?
2. How does American education try to recognize individual differences and abilities?
3. What is one of the arguments for including professional schools in the universities? What is one of the arguments against it?

Applying Ideas

1. What are the aims of the educational system in your country? Are they the same as or different from those of the American educational system?
2. Is the single-track system or the two-track system followed in your country? Which system do you prefer? Why?
3. Does your school system recognize differences in individual abilities and interests? If so, in what ways are the differences taken into account?

COMPOSITION

Organization

A. Notice that the essay develops two points: that American education is designed to provide equality of opportunity; and that American education tries to take account of individual differences and abilities; that is, that it avoids treating all children in the same way, as if they were all alike. What paragraphs discuss equality of opportunity? What paragraphs discuss individual differences? What paragraphs provide a transition between these two points?

B. Write a composition of two paragraphs. Begin the first paragraph with this sentence: *American education is designed to provide equality of opportunity.* Begin the second paragraph with this sentence: *American education is also designed to take account of individual differences and abilities.*

Longer Composition (optional)

Write a composition of several paragraphs about one of the following subjects. Show both the similarities and the differences; that is, compare and contrast the two systems.

1. Education in England and the United States (Use the essays by Mr. Dent and Mr. Havighurst.)
2. The educational system in England and in your country
3. The educational system in the United States and in your country

Sentence Connectors: *on the contrary* and *on the other hand*

A. *On the contrary* emphasizes a denial. *On the other hand* introduces a statement that is in contrast to another.

1. The single-track system permits each child a maximum freedom of choice; _____, the two-track system strictly limits the number of children who can go on to college.
2. The single-track system does not restrict the child; _____, it gives him a maximum freedom of choice.
3. The American system has the advantage of being open and accessible; _____, there is a great danger that all children might be treated as if they were exactly alike.
4. Not all students who graduate from a secondary school can be admitted to a university; _____, many universities have very high entrance requirements.
5. It is possible to argue that universities should not combine theoretical studies such as philosophy with practical courses such as hotel management; _____, it can be argued that the public university must meet the needs of the society it serves.

B. Combine the following sentences with *on the contrary* and *on the other hand*. Follow the punctuation used in A.

1. The student in England cannot choose the kind of secondary school he will attend. His school is chosen for him according to the results of the "Eleven-plus" examination.
2. Public-supported universities in the United States usually charge low fees. Many private universities are very expensive.

3. Many Americans feel that professional schools such as engineering belong in a university. There are some who would disagree.
4. Ability grouping makes it possible for superior students to receive special instruction. Such grouping unfortunately implies that the other students in a class are basically inferior.
5. Journalism is not being kept out of American universities. More departments of journalism are being introduced every year.

C. Write two sentences of your own and connect them with *on the contrary*. Write two more sentences and connect them with *on the other hand*.

Summarizing

Write full summaries of two of the readings in this unit. Observe the following step-by-step directions carefully.

1. Write the summary as if you were the author speaking.
2. Write a brief summary sentence for each paragraph of the reading. You can use the author's words if you wish, but you must make your own sentences.
3. Omit all examples and illustrations.
4. Take a good look at your summary sentences. Omit any that are repetitious. Combine sentences that belong together, but do not use extremely long sentences.
5. Combine your sentences into paragraphs, using meaningful transitional expressions. Your paragraphs should represent the main divisions of the essay, showing the author's organization.
6. Keep the summary about one-sixth the length of the original essay. The length of the summary will vary according to the degree to which you condense the reading.
7. Read your summary aloud. Is it complete? Does it read smoothly? Does it accurately represent the author's ideas?

Paraphrasing

Write complete paraphrases of two of the readings in this unit. Remember that a complete paraphrase requires that you restate the reading in your own words. It is often difficult to avoid completely the

wording of the original, but if you observe the following step-by-step directions, you should be able to write an acceptable paraphrase.

1. Write down all the words whose meanings you are not sure of. Look up the words in a good desk dictionary and choose the definition that fits the context.
2. Rewrite the entire reading in simple sentences (sentences with only one clause), avoiding whenever possible the wording of the original.
3. List the sentences in a logical sequence. Read through them carefully and see whether or not the total meaning matches that of the original.
4. Combine some of the sentences by using coordinators (*and, but, for, etc.*). Combine others by using subordinators (*when, if, because, though, etc.*) and relative words (*who, which, that, etc.*). Supply sentence connectors (*however, therefore, for example, etc.*) whenever you think they will help to clarify the relationship between sentences or paragraphs. Not all the sentences, of course, should be combined. Your goal is to avoid choppiness, to make certain that the paraphrase reads smoothly.

GRAMMAR. Clauses with *whoever* and *whatever*

Model: Universities should be open to anyone who is qualified.

anyone who → *whoever*

Universities should be open to whoever is qualified.

14.1 Follow the model as you form noun clauses with *whoever*.

- 1. Universities offer scholarships to anyone who has high grades.

- 2. The tests are given to anyone who applies to the university.

- 3. The new vocational school will accept anyone who applies.

- 4. The teacher excused anyone who got a high grade on the test.

- 5. Anyone who needs extra help can stay after class.

Model: High school students should be free to study anything that interests them.

anything (that) → *whatever*

High school students should be free to study whatever interests them.

14.2 Follow the model as you form noun clauses with *whatever*.

- 1. We read anything that we could find on education in the United States.

- 2. Anything that we read about education we reported to the class.

- 3. Ken does anything the teacher tells him to.

- 4. Kathy likes anything she reads.

- 5. Kathy says anything that comes into her mind.

- 6. She believes anything that people say.

Clauses with *whenever* and *wherever*

Model: Ken does his homework anytime he has a chance.

anytime → *whenever*

Ken does his homework whenever he has a chance.

14.3 Follow the model as you form clauses with *whenever*.

1. Ken reads books on science anytime he is free.

2. Kathy recites poetry anytime she is asked to.

3. The teacher groups the students anytime he teaches a reading lesson.

4. The teacher informs the parents anytime a student is not doing well.

5. The parents have been invited to visit the school anytime they please.

Model: The teacher takes the class anyplace there is something interesting to see.

anyplace (that) → *wherever*

The teacher takes the class wherever there is something interesting to see.

14.4 Follow the model as you form clauses with *wherever*.

1. Ken likes to hike anyplace there is a river or a stream.

2. Kathy likes to swim anyplace that the water is deep.

3. The class plans to have the picnic anyplace that there is lots of grass.

4. Ken's parents would like to take a vacation anyplace that they can find peace and quiet.

5. Ken goes anyplace he finds people and excitement.



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